The Nation

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The Week

Senator La Follette's speaking tour in Ohio is preceded by a flat repudiation, on the part of his friends in that State, of the Chairman of the Republican State Committee, Mr. Brown. This seems queer, for Mr. Brown had announced himself as a progressive of the progressives. He ardently desires a Presidential primary, which is good La Follette doctrine. The difficulty arises, apparently, from the fact that Chairman Brown declares himself for Roosevelt, and gives it as his opinion that the Colonel would sweep the primaries in Ohio. It is for this that he is disowned and denounced by the La Follette partisans, who point out that Brown is playing into the hands of the reactionaries by dividing the opposition to Taft. If the Ohio Progressives are lured into splitting up their votes for delegates between the Wisconsin Senator and the New York Colonel, the result might easily be to give a plurality to those favoring Taft. Hence Chairman Brown's open reading out of the progressive fold.

On the subject of the efficiency of labor, and its relation to high wages, the Tariff Board's report on Schedule K presents some interesting data and conclusions. The highly significant statement is made that the careful determinations of productive efficiency made by the Board "show wide differences in efficiency and cost, but indicate in general that the lowest labor costs per pound were in mills paying the highest wages." But it should be clearly understood that this statement refers to comparisons within our own country, the mills there under consideration being all American. While there can be no doubt that a similar relation holds over a wide field of comparison between American and foreign production, and that the efficiency of American labor and machinery is a dominant cause of the high rate of American wages, yet it should be mentioned that in the woollen manufacture, for reasons set forth in detail, the Board does not find this to be the case. It appears that 87 per cent. of the machinery used is imported; and of the labor a considerable portion consists of "unskilled immigrants with no previous experience in manufacture," this population being often of a very fluctuating kind, so that the manufacturer is "obliged continually to break in a new set of inexperienced operatives." If, however, all this is so after fifty years of high protection for this infant industry, it does not look as though the American people ought to be compelled any longer to forego the privilege of buying woollen wearing apparel and blankets at reasonable prices.

Whenever the Senate makes a Wegg-like drop into art, there is apt to be trouble brewing for culture. Last week Senator Root introduced an innocent-looking bill authorizing the American Academy at Rome to enlarge its scope and to increase its holdings of property up to $3,000,000. He made a brief explanation of its purposes, and requested immediate consideration, but the eagle eye of Senator Bailey perceived the lurking danger to American ideals. The Texas Senator had, first of all, grave Constitutional doubts about any action taken by this Government "looking to the promotion of art or science outside of the United States." Even granting that these scruples could be overcome, Senator Bailey took the broad position that "until every hill in America is crowned with a public school," he could not conscientiously endorse the outlay of millions to "educate our countrymen in a foreign land."

Senator Bailey's simple eloquence was rudely broken off by another Senator from the South, Mr. Reed of Missouri, who desired to be and promptly was "shown." We quote the frigid account from the *Congressional Record:*

> Mr. Reed—Mr. President, I desire to get a little information from the Senator from New York. As I understand, this bill only authorizes a corporation to increase its holdings, and does not take any money from the Public Treasury?
>
> Mr. Root—The Senator is correct. The bill merely authorizes the corporation to hold more property given to it by others.
>
> Mr. Reed—And am I correct in further understanding that the institution is not run for profit, but purely for the promotion of education in the lines of art?
>
> Mr. Root—Precisely.
>
> Mr. Reed—That is all I desire to know.
>
> The bill was reported to the Senate without amendment, ordered to be engrossed for a third reading, read the third time, and passed.

The purpose of Senator Kenyon's bill forbidding interstate common carriers to transport liquor the shipment of which would be in violation of the laws of the State, Territory, or district into which it was shipped, is one that should command the approval of right-minded persons, whatever their views on the question of prohibition. Nobody denies the Constitutional right of a State to enact prohibitory laws on the subject of liquor; and it ought to be the desire of honest men, if they admit this, to let the States have a fair chance to carry out such policy as they may deliberately adopt. If, as many opponents of prohibition are convinced, the rigorous execution of the law, without such mitigation of it as comes from the facilities which interstate commerce affords for its nullification, would demonstrate the intolerableness of the State's policy, this would be sure to lead to repeal; if, on the other hand, the people found the result satisfactory, they are entitled to have their way.

In the annual report of the Interstate Commerce Commission, the action of the new Commerce Court in enjoining the Commission's so-called "inter-mountain rate order" is sharply criticised. The Commission, it will be recalled, had given a hearing to complaints against the practice whereby transcontinental railways would charge, for shipments from Eastern points to inland markets along the Pacific Coast, the full rate to the Western ocean plus the return rate from the Pacific to the interior destination. It had decided last July that the Commission's supervisory powers under the "long and short haul clause" ought to be applied, and had therefore ordered revocation of the discriminatory rates. The order stipulated that no higher charge should be exacted for shipment to any intermediate point than for shipment to the coast, and made some more or less arbitrary rulings as to maximum differences. The railways argued that the rates to intermediate points were remunerative but that rates to the coast were not; the latter having been forced

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down by water competition. On these grounds, and on a further Constitutional argument, the Commerce Court on November 9 enjoined temporarily the Commission's order, which was to go in force November 15, and on November 11 it made the injunction permanent.

Appeal was forthwith taken to the United States Supreme Court, in whose hands the matter now rests. The Interstate Commerce Commission's annual report speaks resentfully of the Commerce Court's action. It repeats the arguments for its own decision; of which the main point was that since the Commission may by law fix maximum but not minimum rates, there was no other way of guarding shippers from gross discrimination. We have held all along that there is great force in this contention, but we cannot follow the Commission's report in its further declaration, that since "the fixing of reasonable rates is a legislative function," delegated by Congress to the Commission, it is "not subject to review by the courts." Counsel for the railways, in their appeal to the Commerce Court, had not merely asserted that the Railway Law of 1910 was itself unconstitutional, but had alleged that the order, in its specific provisions, was confiscatory and equivalent to taking property without due process of law. It is quite possible that neither contention will hold when reviewed by the Supreme Court; but the Interstate Commerce Commission's argument against the jurisdiction of the court in such matters seems to us ill-founded.

In a brief circular letter, the American Association for Labor Legislation puts with unanswerable force the case of the pending bill to prohibit the use of poisonous phosphorus in the manufacture of matches. Two circumstances make the inaction of Congress in this matter nothing less than disgraceful. The first is that the fearful, and absolutely preventable, disease of "phossy jaw" is, as the Association says, "now an American disease," other civilized countries having prohibited the use of white phosphorous "while we have been talking." The second is that—as was widely noted at the time—the Diamond Match Company, commonly spoken of as the Match Trust, generously and promptly acceded, long ago, to President Taft's request that it should cancel its patent, so that other manufacturers might have the opportunity to use the harmless form of phosphorus of which it had exclusive control.

Gov. Hooper of Tennessee appears to be going about the business of improving prison conditions in a spirit of intelligence and firmness, as well as of humanity. So far as we have observed, he gives no countenance whatever to sentimental notions undermining responsibility on the part of the convicts, or confusing the mind of the public in regard to the foundations of the system of criminal justice. His endeavor to introduce methods which would offer an incentive to good conduct and genuine endeavor on the part of convicts is in sharp contrast with the preposterous distribution of pardons that marked the career of his predecessor in the Governorship. Some form of the indeterminate sentence and of the parole system, and the devotion of part of the value of the prisoners' work to the support of their families, are among the improvements the Governor seeks to obtain by new laws; but he finds that there is plenty of room for improvement in practice, under the law as it stands.

An adaptation of the Wisconsin Legislative Bureau has been planned for Chicago. At its head is to be an expert statistician, whose duty will be to establish a library of books relating to municipal affairs, to arrange for supplying the Mayor, the Aldermen, the department heads, and even inquiring non-residents, with information on city problems, and to promote the prestige of the city in all proper ways. This last purpose savors more of local patriotism than of efficiency, but need not interfere with the primary objects of the project. The plan has apparently aroused no opposition, but its adoption has been seriously delayed by the attempt of the spoils-loving section of the City Council to make the new organization a "department," instead of a "bureau," department heads being appointed by the Mayor, while bureau heads are under the civil service law. Moreover, department heads, being "officers," must live in Chicago, and consequently no expert could be brought in from outside to give the innovation the benefit of his experience. It can hardly be more than a question of time before the Bureau of Publicity and Information is added to Chicago's system of government. But no one will hope for much effect from its activities upon the relics of the boodle Councilmen of a decade or so ago.

Just what the heavy figures of outgoing steerage passengers, and the light figures of incoming ones, for the year now closing, signify, may be difficult to judge; but the publication of the figures may well serve to draw attention to the fact that the tide of immigration, with which we are sometimes represented as being submerged in these latter years, has been by no means as formidable for a number of years back as most people imagine. During the year 1911, the net immigration—excess of arrivals over departures—will be less than 300,000; and the average for the four preceding years, 1907-10, was about 525,000. This is very different from the million that is usually spoken of; and, while the showing for these years is undoubtedly in large measure to be ascribed to the check which American enterprise received through the panic of 1907, it should, on the other hand, be remembered that at the height of the boom before that panic—namely, in the calendar year 1906—the net immigration did not exceed a million, the exact figure given by the returns being 996,084. Half a million—the average for the past five years—it should be remembered, too, is only half of one per cent. of the present population of the country.

CHICAGO, December 20.—The ten packers charged with violating the Sherman law sprung a surprise on the prosecution this afternoon. Motion to strike out counts 2 and 3 of the indictment, charging the packers with criminal violation of the law, and to set aside certain other allegations, as not coming within the three years covered by the indictment, forced a sudden postponement of the trial.

These particular motions were promptly disposed of last week, but the mere offering of them, after the unconscionable delay that had already taken place, is a pointed illustration of an intolerable evil. This everlasting lawyers' game of springing surprises, and discovering pitfalls, and making mountains out of molehills, causes the business of enforcing ordinary common-sense law to be carried on under such handicaps as almost to paralyze the nation in any endeavor to institute far-reaching reforms. "I have talked of the necessity of im-

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proving the criminal procedure before every bar association that gave me a chance," said President Taft the other night, in his speech at the Young Men's Republican Club; and, to his honor be it said, he has more than once used words as strong as the English language affords to express his conviction of the enormity of existing conditions and practices.

By the highly dramatic manner in which he acknowledges defeat, Gen. Reyes has more than undone the harm he brought upon his country. For the surrender of Reyes means not only the collapse of the movement with which he was personally identified, but the collapse of the various sectional insurrections that have been sputtering on in the hope of a decisive turn of fortune against Madero. Reyes was the only man upon whom an insurrection could centre that did not on the face of it bear the most sinister motives; now that he is gone, there is no one for Madero to deal with but petty local chieftains obviously out for plunder. It is to be regretted that the assurance of peace in Mexico should come only after the total discrediting of one who for many years was regarded as the rising hope of the republic. Certainly, the conduct of Reyes has latterly been quite away from the rôle of a popular saviour. Towards Diaz, when the latter was still in power, Reyes showed only timidity. When the revolution broke out, he refused to take sides, and gave himself to the enjoyment of a leisurely vacation in Europe, while the fate of the country was under decision. When Madero had won, Reyes came back to make trouble. The half-hearted way he went at the business suggests the possibility that in this matter he has been the tool of secret enemies of Madero, and not a very willing tool at that.

If the Irish get Home Rule, what will they do with it? This old and taunting question is answered by Mr. Redmond in the first number of "Home Rule Notes," to be issued periodically by the Home Rule Council. One of the first things to which an Irish Parliament would give attention, declares Mr. Redmond, is the reform of the Poor Law. In it certain changes were strongly urged in a report by a commission appointed by the Viceroy, six years ago, but the Parliament at Westminster was too busy to take the matter up, and it was dropped. This by itself was an argument for putting the Irish in charge of Irish affairs. Then there is the whole question of Irish railways and waterways and drainage which is pressing for consideration, while agricultural problems of capital importance are waiting for Irish legislators and administrators to solve. It is an ambitious programme of economic and social reform which Mr. Redmond sketches—certainly extensive and difficult enough to keep an Irish Parliament busy for a long time to come. There will doubtless be squabbles in the new governing body—Ireland would not be Ireland if there were not—but there seems to be, with the prospect of Home Rule, a settling down of the people to its serious tasks.

The debates in the French Chamber confirm the impression resulting from official declarations in the Reichstag and the House of Commons, to the effect that Germany's attitude in her negotiations with the French Government was by no means so provocative as it was generally supposed to be at the height of the crisis. There was some hard bargaining over the Congo, but that is legitimate enough; actually it seems to be established that Germany's demands in the beginning were not much above what she finally obtained. This only brings out once more the unfortunate manner of German diplomacy. The dispatch of a warship to Agadir was apparently done for the purpose of protecting German interests in south Morocco. But the world at large, and the German people as much as any one else, regarded the act as a challenge. The imperialistic spirit in Germany was immediately inflamed, and the Government found itself forced into an attitude of menace it had never planned. So, too, in Great Britain, public opinion forced Sir Edward Grey's hand and led to the famous speech of Lloyd George, for which, as it now appears, the direct occasion did not absolutely exist. And thus is once more exemplified the danger of playing with fire and how the diplomats' "game" may assume very bitter reality.

The submission of Persia to Russia's demand for the dismissal of W. Morgan Shuster from his post as Treasurer-General closes an episode, but not an epoch. For the time being, Persia is beaten to her knees; but the young American's bold stand against the two "protecting" Powers who have now protected Persian independence out of existence has served its purpose in a three-fold way. It has forced both the Russian and British Governments out of the jungle of diplomacy into an open avowal of their unhallowed motives. It has roused the better conscience of the nations, not excluding Britain herself, where a powerful minority has raised its voice in protest against the co-partnership of robbery with Russia. Finally, it has brought forth the latent resources of the Persian people, whose attitude, as voiced in the Parliament at Teheran, has been altogether admirable, even to the point of venturing the trial of battle with Russia's armed millions. For the time being the people of Persia must yield to *force majeure;* but the stirring of the subject races the world over is warrant for the belief that Mr. Shuster's fight for the preservation of the rights of an ancient people will have its results in the future.

Another Russian statesman utters the refrain, "We cannot change our internal legislation to please the United States." But Russia has not been asked to change her laws of domicile or any other regulation affecting the status of various races within the Empire. The claim has not been put forward that Jewish-American citizens shall be allowed to enter Russia for the purpose of taking up residence there. The claim has simply been made that any legitimate purpose which sends a man travelling abroad under the protection of an American passport shall receive recognition at the hands of the Russian Government. At the present moment Russia admits foreign Jews who come in the capacity of commercial travellers, and it is not on record that Jewish anarchists, revolutionists, and other enemies of society have taken advantage of this loophole to force their way into Russia; or, if they have, why does the privilege remain? If a Russian-born Jew has emigrated to this country and prospered, and is moved by sentiment to revisit the country of his birth, to revive old scenes and old friendships, how does the question of his admission into Russia become a domestic problem and a menace?

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TAFT'S KIND OF "PROGRESSIVENESS."

The message which President Taft sent to Congress on Thursday of last week covers many routine governmental matters, but contains a few striking proposals of new legislation. Mr. Taft comes out strongly, for instance, in favor of the establishment of a parcels post, and urges Congress to make immediately at least a beginning of the system. The President also recommends the enacting of a bill defining anew and more humanely the liability of employers for accidents to their workmen, together with the passage of pending measures to do away with some of the mischiefs of delayed justice in the courts. His most advanced and significant position, however, is taken in connection with the civil service. Mr. Taft goes further than any of his predecessors in urging that all local Federal offices throughout the country—collectors of internal revenue and of customs, commissioners, and marshals, together with postmasters of all four classes—should be by law placed in the classified service, and that the whole mass of patronage involved should be destroyed.

This proposal is so quietly made by President Taft that its radical and far-reaching nature may easily be overlooked. In reality, it lays the axe to the root of a hoary abuse. Mr. Taft frankly points out the exact nature of the existing method under which the President is supposed to appoint these Federal officials. They are, in fact, dictated to him by Senators and Representatives. The motives for their appointment are political; they are simply rewarded for past party services; and their main allegiance is not to the public service but to their patrons. All this is set forth by the President explicitly, who also speaks with emphasis of the immense and needless "burden" placed upon the Executive by this distribution of patronage. His time, with the time of Congressmen, is eaten into by the incessant demand for appointments to office, with all the wearisome canvassing of "credentials" and weighing of "influence." What the President calls for is the casting out of the whole system, bag and baggage, so that there may be, on the one hand, an assured career in the public service for those who enter it by examination and are promoted for merit, and on the other more freedom and opportunity for the high officers of the Government to spend their strength on really important tasks. If the recommendations which President Taft now makes were to be carried out, we should have an extension of civil-service reform going beyond the fondest dreams of the earliest advocates of that cause in this country.

To the need of a fresh advance in improving conditions in the Federal service attention was sharply called at the recent meeting of the National Civil Service Reform League in Philadelphia. In the address by President Eliot statistics were given to show how large a number of Federal offices are still in the unprotected class. The rosters of employees swell year by year, and constant vigilance is necessary to prevent the spoilsmen from getting the upper hand. Then there is the evil of having officeholders engaged in politics. Representative Norris of Nebraska has just dwelt upon this in a public speech. He showed that in one Southern State, out of a Republican State Committee of forty-six members, forty-four were Federal officials. On this point President Taft makes a remark in his message, to the effect that rules to prevent it are treated as "hardly worthy of respect" so long as the officeholders know that their tenure depends upon continued political service in behalf of the Congressmen or others who originally appointed them. This cannot be called a vigorous utterance. The President could undoubtedly issue orders to Federal officials to abstain from partisan activities under penalty of removal, and could enforce them. Such was the course followed by Hayes and Cleveland, and Roosevelt made a show of following it. Mr. Taft has not, but it is clear that he is ready to go on to a more thorough remedy for the evil. He would have the entire service reformed in such a way as to take away from appointees the motive to do work for their political chiefs. We repeat that the President's plan is the most sweeping ever urged by an American Executive. There has been in Congress much grumbling about Mr. Taft's use of patronage. But now he throws down the square challenge: Join me in doing away entirely with the great bulk of the patronage.

For the response the country will watch with much interest. Meanwhile, we may see in the President's proposals the sort of progress which appeals to him. He sets his heart on legislation. To get definite bills enacted is with him the main thing. Ways and means and machinery he cares less about. And it must be confessed that he drives at his practical results with a great deal of directness and force. If he were to succeed in getting his legislative programme carried out, it would do a good deal to break the charge that he is not "progressive." All the reforms which the progressives advocate—direct primaries, the initiative and referendum, even the recall—are designed to improve our political machinery so that we may have better laws and better administration. But the means must not be exalted above the ends. For some of those ends—particularly the rescue of the public service from the politicians—President Taft has now shown that he will go as far and work as hard as the next man. That is his idea of "progress," and nothing can be said against it—if only the progress be actually achieved.

EDUCATION FOR THE MASSES.

The daily press gives frequent evidence of the fact that there are still many who cast wistful glances at the good old days when the acquisition of the three R's was the supreme object to which the schools for the children of the masses were supposed to be devoted. That those necessary rudiments of education are less successfully imparted to the average child nowadays than they were in the olden time we do not believe there is any good reason to think; on the contrary, there is a great deal of evidence that the opposite is the case. However this may be, every one who stops to think must recognize that any limitation of the present activities of the schools to this narrow scope, or to anything like it, is out of the question. Against such proposals, two powerful factors operate irresistibly; in the first place, the manifest needs of the present era, and secondly the obvious fact that education in the common schools extends, in the case of a preponderant portion of the population, over a far greater number of years than was the case half a century ago.

And it is not only in the ordinary school curriculum itself that a broadened conception of the function of the

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public school, and of the relation of the State or municipality to the diffusion of knowledge and education throughout the community, is manifested. In New York city there has been maintained now for twenty-two years, as part of the public school system, an institution which has quietly done an inestimable amount of good in this direction by opening to adults an opportunity for instruction, and for improving entertainment, in almost every field of human interest. We refer to the public lectures given under the auspices of the Department of Education, in every section of the city, and chiefly in the public-school buildings. A glance at the report of the supervisor, Dr. Henry M. Leipziger, cannot fail to impress any thoughtful person with a sense of the enormous benefit which, at relatively very small expense, is thus obtained for the masses of the people. During the year 1910-11, 5,411 audiences were addressed by 716 lecturers, the average size of the audience being 176. Not the least of the merits of the system is the participation of local committees in determining the choice of the subjects to be treated at the several lecture centres; and one of the incidental benefits attained is the quickening of the interest of parents in the schools, through being brought into contact with them by attendance on the lectures. It ought to be highly gratifying to New Yorkers to know that the initiative of their city has found imitation throughout the country. The movement reached the Pacific Coast last winter, when public lectures based exactly on the New York system were successfully instituted in San Francisco.

But one does not need to go beyond the effect on the auditors themselves to feel that this extension of public education is amply justified. When thousands of hardworking men and women gather, after the day's toil, to listen not only to lectures on travel, or "current topics," or so intensely practical a subject as first aid to the injured, but to long courses of consecutive lectures on the development of fiction and on the nature of poetry, there needs no argument to show that the seed is falling on good soil. Of the two last-mentioned series, Dr. Leipziger says that they have proved among the most successful of all, and that he has received from unknown auditors letters giving ample proof that many lives have been enriched through listening to these courses. But the range of subjects is comprehensive; competent lecturers deal with leading questions in economics and government, with the great themes of physical science, pure and applied, with history and geography, with music and painting and architecture. It is precisely by the spreading of such opportunities for cultivating interests other than those of the daily grind for subsistence, that it must be made possible for the toiling masses to escape from the sordidness under which the pressure of life constantly tends to submerge them.

When this project was first instituted, it doubtless seemed to many a strange innovation, and one to be looked upon with a certain misgiving. But in reality it is entirely consonant with the general trend of the development of public education. It is to be noted that at the other end of the scale of population—in the hamlets and country districts—a movement has been gaining a foothold which shows that "the little red schoolhouse" is no longer regarded, in the more progressive rural communities, as fulfilling the needs of the people; by a combination of economic forethought and educational aspiration, the idea has been worked out, and acted upon, that free transportation of the children to larger centres will give more and better education for a given expenditure of money than could be got in the old way. And throughout the country, in big cities and in small towns, the free library has come to be regarded as an indispensable part of the intellectual facilities of the people. Our complex civilization has many drawbacks as well as immeasurable advantages; and we shall not do our duty by the masses of the people if we do not see to it that, so far as possible, they are placed in a position to profit by the general diffusion of opportunities for self-development. Modern conditions make these far more necessary than they were in simpler days, and at the same time the providing of them is made easily practicable by modern concentration and modern resources.

OUR FUTURE EXPERTS.

There has evidently come a reaction in this country against the mere expert—that idol of yesterday. In the future he must be something of an all-round man. Already there is discontent with the football player who can only kick, with the statesman who has no hobbies, with the scholar who knows only his Gothic, and with the preacher who can merely preach. Not only must a pastor expound Holy Writ, he must tell his flock what to think of every flying straw, and sometimes how to vote. No one person has wrought this change of feeling. For instance, the rage for specialization was never so great as when a certain other type of man was talking French to Pastor Wagner, writing reviews of Celtic sagas, establishing endurance tests for army officers, helping out reporters, and holding high office. It is to be noted, however, that foreigners like to reckon a finger in every pie as typically American.

At the present moment at least the danger which seemed to have fastened its roots in us appears to have been only a mushroom. For there has always been a great difference between foreign and American specialization. A family of watchmakers unto the fourth and fifth generation or a restaurant keeper who all his life has raised his own ducks, does not strike our people as particularly admirable. The American expert, to win applause, had to appeal to a larger imagination, had to be potentially a man of the hour. An electrical engineer because he might bring rescue to a sinking ship, an out-and-out business man because he might some day dine with an emperor or receive the freedom of a city, an agriculturist who could perform the miracle of a blossoming desert, or a prospector who might live on apples of gold in pictures of silver—these were our heroes. It is hard to recall a single programme of preparation which did not hold out the chance of a broad notoriety. To say that this was inherent in the mere hugeness of our industries, is only to show the real difference between American and European specialties and motives. It comes out more clearly still when we reflect upon our manner of rewarding experts. A criminal lawyer who succeeded in a spectacular trial at once received offers to try cases of all sorts; a man who had cornered the wheat market was asked for his opinions on the future welfare of the country; the experimenter with guinea-pigs was expected to hold the secret of the census for the year 2000. Narrow grubbing there has been, but only that one

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might later be set upon the pinnacle of the temple and be told to adjudge our possessions.

American versatility was all along too much a part of our traditions to be seriously threatened by specialization. The picture of the well-to-do householder being able at a pinch to mend a dripping faucet or build his wife a cupboard, as well as the foreign assertion that the American millionaire could carry parcels as naturally as a messenger boy, has always tickled our fancy. Whither, then, are we tending to-day? The signs of the times require as delicate scrutiny as a patient's thermometer, and are not so trustworthy. Yet it begins to look as though our big prizes would be bought more dearly in the future. In many spheres of activity we have indeed reached a point where some breadth and depth of nature are necessary parts of the competition. In business it is markedly so. The thought that one could easily turn to a new enterprise if the first one failed is replaced by the belief that efficiency will bring to the front many abandoned enterprises; and efficiency is taken to mean not only smoothness in mechanical processes and systems, but a wide range of human faculties playing upon a product of whatever sort. For the man who would be successful there are whole sermons in rolling-pins and axle grease. Or take the professors. It used to be that a dull stripling might be the recognized authority—for lack of any rivalry—on the phonology of low Latin. But to-day, for aught we know, there are congresses of low Latinists, and it is seen that if low Latin is to be raised to its proper level, it must be learned from eloquent lips. And in many other ways emphasis is settling upon the personality of the teacher and his method of imparting, rather than upon the mere substance of his knowledge. This latest tendency, in so far as it serves to keep cheapness from expertness and to require that the latter be the product of sound reflection quite as well as of digging, is, of course, wholly admirable. It was always a bit trying to worship any "greatest living authority" whose ideas on most matters were negligible.

And yet the present test of broadmindedness carries with it the usual dangers inherent in reactions. There is a time to laugh and a time to dance and there is a time to weep; and it may be that everybody should have done them all. But there is no command that they shall all be done at once, or that one shall be expert in each of them. Likewise there is a great difference between vital learning and versatility. By all means, for example, let us have professors whose broad preparation and rich life give an inspiring reach and background to their specialties. But just as emphatically let us not expect them to be dandies and social favorites. Nor is it necessary that a preacher, to be accounted human and broad, shall dispute the decisions of the Supreme Court. If sticking to what one thoroughly understands is, according to the newer attitude, dull pedantry, we trust that our leaders will have the courage to be dullards. We believe, however, that we are moving in the right direction and that our experts of the future will attain to something of that mellowness which in the older countries of Europe has long rendered men in the public eye interesting to all.

THE FALLIBLE INTERVIEWER.

Maurice Maeterlinck, according to the latest dispatches, has given up his contemplated visit to this country. Fear of the American reporter is still strong upon him. It seems odd that a man who has gazed steadfastly into the depths of Destiny, of Death, and of other unfathomable mysteries, should be afraid to meet the eye of so unpretending a person as the American newspaper man. But if M. Maeterlinck's state of mind is such that it is a question of entering this country uninterviewed or not entering it at all, he has acted wisely in deciding not to come. The idea that he could evade our interviewers by coming in disguise, or by way of San Francisco, Montreal, or Juarez, is preposterous. The distinguished author might dress up as a Dalmatian peasant and come by way of Ellis Island; he would only find that his bunk-mate all the way from Trieste was one of Mr. Hearst's young men. At the present moment M. Maeterlinck is probably under constant surveillance; and his fate may ultimately be like the unhappy victims of the third degree. Surrounded day and night by the disguised emissaries of the Associated Press, the Belgian poet will end by engaging the royal suite on the Lusitania and summoning the reporters to meet him at Quarantine. There he will cry, "I am here. Take me. Interview me. I can bear this no longer!"

But there is an alternative. Provided he can hold out for six months, M. Maeterlinck can attain his ambition and land among us unnoticed. In six months his challenge to the reporters will be forgotten. In six months the opera season will be over, the theatres will be closed, the "Blue Bird" will be stale news, and the minds of men will be taken up with the puzzling condition of "Matty's" pitching arm. Let the distinguished Belgian then board a vessel for New York, without disguise and without ostentation, and enter his name upon the ship's list as plain "M. Maeterlinck." He will pass the interviewers without arousing suspicion; or, if to some one among the reporters the name Maeterlinck may bear a familiar echo, a few discreet and kindly words will satisfy the man. If the distinguished Belgian has any doubts on the subject, let him think of Dr. Wilhelm Bode. Two years ago, Dr. Bode and his $50,000 wax bust by Leonardo da Vinci held the front pages of the newspapers for weeks. Had he landed in New York in 1909, he would have been interviewed to a shadow. But Dr. Bode came to the United States in 1911, and the first intimation of this visit to most of us was a cable from Berlin giving Dr. Bode's impressions of America. What happened to Dr. Bode is happening all the time to distinguished foreigners in this country. Men devoid of immediate news value are thereby rendered invisible to the all-seeing eye of the press.

In planning a mid-summer trip such as we have described, M. Maeterlinck might take the additional precaution of engaging passage on the same boat with a theatrical manager returning from Europe with a long list of new attractions for the approaching season; or with a party of young women from the Middle West who have been victors in a newspaper educational contest in which the first twelve prizes were a choice between a trip to Europe and a grand piano; or with a prosperous business man from the same Middle West who has been enjoying the hospitality of Europe's effete but exceedingly likable aristocrats and royalties. Against such competitors it would need a very obtrusive man of fame, indeed, to win much attention in the public prints. First place, of course, would go to the

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young women from the Middle West, with a group photograph, individual impressions of the Vatican, the Louvre, the Tower of London, and the Rhine, and a general chorus of satisfaction at getting back to what is, after all, the finest country on earth. For second place there would probably be a close race between the theatrical manager with two hundred theatres, thirty stars, and unnumbered plays at his finger-ends, and the business man from the West, with his highly interesting views on the present state of European politics and civilization.

We confess to a particular fondness for this sturdy self-made gentleman from the West whom a single trip across the Atlantic renders an authority on the profoundest questions of contemporary interest. We read:

Mr. W. B. Sands of Milwaukee, who arrived yesterday on the Ruritania, after a two months' stay abroad, in the course of which he was introduced to the Grand Duke Michael at a luncheon at Monte Carlo, declares that never was the condition of the Russian Empire as satisfactory as it is at present. The Russian peasants all love the Czar and the Czar is constantly working for the welfare of the peasants. Mr. Sands declared that there is no basis for the rumors of a secret treaty of alliance between Russia and Japan.

We read:

It is the firm opinion of Henderson W. Sloggs of Omaha, who arrived yesterday on the Cetacean, that Italy's measures in Tripoli are regarded with extreme dissatisfaction at Berlin and Vienna. At the same time, Mr. Sloggs insists that Italy was justified in acting as she did. Tripoli is a land of infinite promise and in the course of time can produce enough wheat to feed half the world. Mr. Sloggs's sojourn abroad was confined to Paris, London, and the Lakes of Killarney.

We read:

W. Dexter Jones, one of the lumber-kings of northern Michigan, when seen on board the Wilhelm, at Quarantine, said that during a two-days' stay in Berlin he became convinced that Ibsen had lost his hold on the German people. While at Berlin Mr. Jones took in three musical shows and the circus.

With so much news in the air, M. Maeterlinck would stand a very good chance of escaping notice.

PELATIAH WEBSTER AND THE CONSTITUTION.

In an article in the *North American Review* for August, 1907; in a memorial presented to Congress in May, 1908, and printed by its order; in his recent book, "The Origin and Growth of the American Constitution," and in several newspaper communications, Mr. Hannis Taylor has announced the discovery that Pelatiah Webster, a pamphleteer of the Revolutionary period, was the true designer or architect of the Constitution of the United States, having previously proposed the convention which constructed it. The claim must be treated seriously because of the importance of the subject and because Congress has given it currency by publishing it.

In the *North American Review* article Mr. Taylor says:

He [Webster] it was who first proposed in a public way the calling of the convention in which the present Constitution was made.

Again:

It is beyond question that Pelatiah Webster, in his financial essay of 1781, made the first public call for a convention to create an adequate system of Federal government.

In the memorial he adds:

Having thus taken the first step, he set himself to work to formulate in advance such an adequate system as the convention should adopt, whenever it might meet.

The "adequate system" was formulated in a pamphlet issued in 1783, which derives much of its force, according to Mr. Taylor, from the pamphlet of 1781 which paved the way for it.

I.

Mr. Taylor's authority for stating that Webster proposed a Continental convention in 1781 is the following paragraph by James Madison in his sketch of the origin of the Convention, first printed in 1840 as an introduction to the "Madison Papers," edited by Henry D. Gilpin:

In a pamphlet published in May, 81, at the seat of Congs. Pelatiah Webster, an able tho not conspicuous Citizen, after discussing the fiscal system of the U. States, and suggesting among other remedial provisions including [a] national Bank, remarks that "the Authority of Congs. at present is very inadequate to the performance of their duties; and this indicates the necessity of their calling a *Continental Convention* for the express purpose of ascertaining, defining, enlarging, and limiting, the duties & powers of their Constitution."

Madison further states, in the same sketch, that on April 1, 1783, in Congress, Alexander Hamilton said he wished to see a general convention called and would make a motion for that purpose in view of the recommendation of the New York Legislature; and Madison cites as his authority the "Life of Schuyler in Longacre" (Madison's Writings, Hunt, Ed. II, 401, 402). The citation is incorrect, however, the action of the New York Legislature being given in the sketch of *Hamilton* in Longacre ("National Portrait Gallery," Vol. II).

So is his statement of the authorship of the pamphlet of 1781 incorrect, for it was written by William Barton, and not by Pelatiah Webster. The title is, "Observations on the Nature and Use of Paper Credit," and it was "printed and sold by Thomas Aitken, at Pope's Head, three doors above the Coffee House." All libraries which have it attribute it to Barton, and it appears under his name in Hildebrun's "Issues of the Philadelphia Press, 1685-1784." Our interest, however, is not in knowing who wrote it, but who did not write it, and the proof that Pelatiah Webster was not the author is overwhelming. It is written in a flowing, scholarly style, and every principle advanced is supported by quotations from contemporaneous economic authorities, whereas Webster never quotes, and his simple, homely diction shows in every line the practical and shrewd mind of a man who studies his subject untrammelled by books. Webster reprinted most of his papers in 1791 and did not include this one among them. His essays are on kindred subjects, they follow one another in orderly array, and they refer to one another. That he should have written this essay and not spoken of it in some other essay is highly improbable. Moreover, he did not agree with the main proposition advanced in the pamphlet. It urged the establishment of a national bank, the funds to be raised by a lottery, to be immediately governed by fifty men chosen by Congress and to be controlled by a committee composed of one member named by each State. One searches in vain for an allusion to such a scheme in Webster's essays. In only one does he discuss banks—that of February 10, 1786, on "Credit; in which the Doctrine of Banks is Considered." Here he says a State or national bank "would tend immediately and directly to tyranny in the Government, because it would give the minister or ruler the command of a vast sum of money," and suggests that a State and private bank might be combined. His ideas do not remotely resemble those set forth in the pamphlet of 1781. It can be asserted with positiveness that no unbiassed mind can read Webster's pamphlets and this pamphlet without being certain that Webster did not write it. Madison's sketch in which the error of attributing the pamphlet to Webster occurred was written by him in extreme old age, and was not one of the papers which he prepared for posthumous publication. It is an exceedingly rough draft, was never revised, and was endorsed by him, "a sketch never finished nor applied" (Writings, II, 391). He remembered only in a general way the subjects on which Webster had written, more than fifty years had passed, and, finding the pamphlet on "Paper Credit" in his collection, he erroneously attributed it to Webster.

It is not so easy to understand how Mr. Taylor followed this error and used it as part of the foundation on which

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he builds his panegyric of Webster. In his article in the *North American Review* and in his memorial he quotes, from George Bancroft's "History of the Constitution," the remarks on Webster's pamphlet of 1783 which occur on page 86 of Volume I; but he ignores Bancroft's remarks on the pamphlet of 1781 made on page 23 of the same volume, where Bancroft says:

> In a pamphlet dated the twenty-fourth [of May, 1781] and dedicated to the congress of the United States of America and to the Assembly of Pennsylvania William Barton insisted [and so forth, as in Madison's quotation].

In a footnote on the same page Bancroft adds:

> Not by Pelatiah Webster, as stated by Madison. . . . . First: at a later period, Webster collected his pamphlets in a volume, and this one is not among them, a disclaimer which, under the circumstances, is conclusive. Secondly: the style of this pamphlet of 1781 is totally unlike the style of those collected by Pelatiah Webster. My friend F. D. Stone of Philadelphia was good enough to communicate to me the bill for printing the pamphlet; it was made out against William Barton and paid by him. Further: Barton from time to time wrote pamphlets, of which on a careful comparison, the style, language, and forms of expression are found to correspond to this pamphlet published in 1781. Without doubt it was written by William Barton.

Mr. Taylor does not completely ignore this statement in his book, however. Here he welds the pamphlets of 1781 and 1783 together more strongly than ever, so that when one falls, the other must have a precarious standing, and in a note (p. 27), dismisses Bancroft thus:

> No attention should be paid to Bancroft's vain attempt to discredit Madison's statement. "History of the Constitution," I, 24, Note 3. Apart from Madison's great accuracy and Bancroft's well-known inaccuracy stands the fact that the call of 1781 was a natural part of Pelatiah Webster's initiative as now understood. Madison was on the ground and knew the facts; Bancroft's inference is based on flimsy hearsay nearly a century after the event. Bancroft never grasped the importance of Webster's work.

The logic of this remark is that the pamphlet of 1781 must have been written by Webster, in order to sustain the theory of long premeditation for the pamphlet of 1783. Mr. Taylor will find it hard, however, to make any one agree with him in thinking that a circumstantial averment like Bancroft's can properly be dismissed as an inference based on hearsay.

II.

After the primacy claimed for him in calling for a Convention, it is in order to examine the weakened claim that Webster designed the plan which the Convention adopted, but space limitations make it necessary to deal with only two or three points; they are, however, the strongest that can be brought forward for the claim. The pamphlet, in which the plan was given to the world is entitled "A Dissertation on the Political Union and Constitution of the Thirteen United States of North America." It was first published in 1783 and reprinted in Webster's collected pamphlets in 1791. It contains only two features which also appear in the Constitution—the power of Federal taxation and the bicameral Legislature—and there were no two principles of government better understood in the States at the time Webster wrote than these. The one had been discussed in and out of Congress for years; the other was an accepted policy in the States from the time of the Declaration of Independence. Lack of Federal power to tax without State intermediation was universally recognized as the great cause of the inefficiency of the Confederation. As Madison said:

> But the radical infirmity of the "Arts: of Confederation" was the dependence of Congs. on the voluntary and simultaneous compliance with its Requisitions, by so many independent Communities, each consulting more or less its particular interests & convenience and distrusting the compliance of the others. (Writings II, 395.)

On February 3, 1781, Congress asked the States to vest power in it, to levy a duty of five per cent. on imports. On the same day the resolution was printed as a broadside and passed on to the street.

The taxing power was much debated in the convention of 1787, and, finally, emerged with restrictions. There were half a dozen members of the convention who had been members of the Congress of 1781, and nearly all the members had been in other Congresses, where the subject of Federal taxation had been discussed before and after Webster wrote.

A bicameral Legislature was proposed in the Virginia plan, presented to the Convention as soon as it had a quorum, and two days later agreed to without dissent, except from Pennsylvania, which was the only State that did not have a Legislature of two chambers. Edmund Randolph explained to the Convention on May 31 that the object was to guard against "the turbulence and follies of democracy." On June 7, John Dickinson said he wished the Senate to bear as strong a likeness as possible to the British House of Lords. We need look no further for the Convention's reasons in agreeing at once to a Legislature of two chambers.

IV.

Webster deliberately omitted from his plan recommendation of a Federal judiciary, and so far as we can judge from his writings had no conception of such a one as the Constitution provided for. Here it is my duty to call attention to a carelessness of quotation and statement on Mr. Taylor's part of so grave a character that it has given an entirely incorrect idea of Webster's meaning. In his *North American Review* article, he gives what purports to be a connected quotation of a passage from Webster's pamphlet, but a sentence has been interjected in it from a different part of the pamphlet, a vital word has been changed in the most important sentence and from this sentence a qualifying clause has been omitted. The *Review* article does not, of course, print Webster's pamphlet, which the reader would have to consult to detect these errors and the pamphlet was not then readily accessible. Following is the passage as quoted in the *Review*, italics indicating the misleading portions:

> These ministers [of state] will of course have the best information, and most perfect knowledge, of the state of the Nation as far as it relates to their several departments, and will of course be able to give the best information to Congress, in what manner any bill proposed will affect the public interest in their several departments, which will nearly comprehend the whole. The Financier manages the whole subject of revenues and expenditures—the Secretary of State takes knowledge of the general policy and internal government—the Minister of War presides in the whole business of war and defence—and the Minister of Foreign Affairs regards the whole state of the nation, as it stands related to, or connected with, all foreign powers. *To these I should add judges of law and chancery. I would further propose that the aforesaid great ministers of state shall compose a Council of State, to whose number Congress may add three others, viz., one from New England, one from the Middle States and one from the Southern States, one of which is to be appointed President by Congress.* (Vol. 185, p. 820.)

There is nothing here to indicate what is the fact, that after the sentence describing the duties of the Ministers, a whole paragraph about the Secretary of State has been omitted; but that is not important. The sentence about judges of law and chancery has been changed by substituting the word *should* for *would* and by leaving off half of the original sentence, and the sentence which follows had nothing to do with this part of the argument, but has been inserted from a different part of the pamphlet.

What Webster really said, after speaking of the Ministers, was (italics marking the variation from the passage given by Mr. Taylor):

> To these [*i. e.*, the Ministers of State] I *would* add Judges of law and chancery; *but I fear they will not be very soon appointed—the one supposes the existence of law, and the other of equity—and when we shall be altogether convinced of the absolute necessity of the real and effectual existence of both these we shall probably appoint proper heads to preside in those departments—I would therefore propose,*
>
> 3. *That when any bill shall pass the second reading in the house in which it*

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originates, and before it shall be finally enacted, copies of it shall be sent to each of the said ministers of state, in being at the time, who shall give said house in writing the fullest information in their power, &c. (Edition of 1791, p. 214.)

Seven pages further on in the pamphlet, as the sixth of his main propositions, occurs the sentence about the Ministers of State, "I would further propose that the aforesaid great Ministers," etc. The plain truth is that Mr. Taylor has made Webster propose a Federal judiciary when he did not do so.

V.

In his memorial which precedes the reprint of the pamphlet, and in his book, Mr. Taylor treats this part of Webster's plan somewhat differently, but hardly less recklessly. There he connects Webster's statement that "the supreme authority" should be vested with power to decide controversies between States with the "judges of law and chancery," and finds the entire judicial system distinctly outlined (p. 18 of the memorial); but Webster's "supreme authority" was nothing but Congress, and he meant to continue in it the authority which it already had with reference to controversies between States. He gave it similar authority when he provided that any one who should disobey the "supreme authority" should be "summoned and compelled to appear before Congress."

VI.

Not only did Webster have no discernible part in framing the Constitution, but he did not understand it after it was framed. His own plan had kept all power in Congress, as it was under the old government, and he did not grasp the fact that coördinate and coequal branches had been erected beside Congress. He seems to have thought that the President was a third house. In his essay, published October 12, 1787, in reply to the address against the Constitution issued by sixteen members of the Assembly of Pennsylvania, he says:

2. Their next objection is against a *legislature consisting of three branches.* This is so far from an objection that I consider it an advantage. The most weighty and important affairs of the Union must be transacted in Congress; the most essential counsels must be there decided, *which must all go thro' three several discussions in three different chambers.* . . . At any rate I think it very plain that our chance of a right decision in a *Congress of three branches* is much greater than in one of a single chamber. (Edition of 1791, pp. 404, 405.)

An impartial reading of his essay "The Weakness of Brutus Exposed," published November 4, 1787, and on the "Seat of Federal Government," published September 21, 1789, shows that he had not yet shaken off the habit of thinking of the Federal Government as simply and solely Congress.

I disclaim any wish to detract from the merit of Pelatiah Webster, who was a sound thinker and a patriotic man. Undoubtedly, by his essays on financial subjects, he influenced his time in favor of a stronger central government. Probably his essay on the Federal Union had a general influence in the same direction, although few of the propositions he advanced found a place in the Constitution and none because he had made them, and his plan, as a whole, was completely ignored.

GAILLARD HUNT.

Washington, D. C.

NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

In the final volume of the Memorial edition of Meredith, just published, is included a list of the errata observed by Mr. Esdaile and me in the three volumes of poems (Vols. XXIV to XXVI of this edition). This list, having been prepared in England, and being identical in the volume printed there by Constable and in the United States by Scribner, naturally does not include notice of the errata peculiar to the American volumes. For the patriot must acknowledge with chagrin that many printer's errors have crept in this side the Atlantic of which the British text is innocent. Leaving out of account matters of punctuation, and apart from obvious typographical accidents (such as may be found on pages 108, 146, and 191 of the third volume of poems), there appear in the American volumes at least a score of perversions in the forms of words, some of which might be serious stumbling blocks to the reader. The following are those which I have observed: In Vol I, line 7 of page 129, *Scarceably* for *Scarcely;* 15 of 171, *enemy's* for *enemies';* 11 of 186, *women* for *woman;* in Vol. II, line 1 of page 6, *hunting* for *haunting;* 15 of 115, *Reason's* for *Reason;* 4 of 154, *noonrise* for *moonrise;* 10 of 195, *then* for *than;* 4 of 197, *stuck* for *struck;* 12 of 270, *damned* for *dammed;* in Vol. III, line 13 of page 90, *Like* for *Liker;* 12 of 106, *illumine* for *illume;* 22 of 106, *has* for *had;* 20 of 120, *an* for *on;* 20 of 123, *mid* for *amid;* 17 of 146, *the* for *her;* 7 of 154, *of* for *the;* 23 of 181, *words* for *word;* 32 of 196, *labyrinth's* for *labyrinths;* 25 of 203, *earthly* for *earthy;* 12 of 205, *needs* for *deeds.*

In reference to the Memorial text of the poems as it appears in the volumes of Constable, as well as Scribner, the reader should heed this further warning of a set of errors more important perhaps than the verbal errors resulting from misprint. These mistakes concern the division of the irregular strophes, or groups of lines, in such poems as the "Empty Purse." In a large number of cases there is in the Memorial text no indication of this strophic division; no break is made in the continuity of the text on the page. To specify: there is no break indicated after any of the following lines, of which I give in each case the last word, each of which was intended by Meredith for the last of a group: In Vol. I, line 23 of page 4, *churchyard;* 1 of 8, *no;* 23 of 8, *infantwise;* 12 of 151, *fountain;* 19 of 256, *floor;* in Vol. II, line 8 of page 200, *Helios;* 21 of 252, *herb;* in Vol. III, line 16 of page 15, *wave;* 12 of 16, *sing;* 20 of 28, *brayed;* 19 of 37, *sped;* 31 of 38, *touched;* 21 of 39, *elect;* 2 of 43, *Fiend;* 15 of 46, *knell;* 19 of 50, *stream;* 9 of 53, *voice;* 30 of 53, *calf;* 21 of 54, *accursed;* 20 of 125, *foredoom;* 15 of 129, *instrument;* 7 of 130, *lie;* 21 of 135, *scourged;* 27 of 138, *sky;* 11 of 152, *dirt;* 9 of 160, *flanks;* 13 of 166, *assigned;* 12 of 180, *victory;* 15 of 190, *break;* 16 of 200, *sang;* 24 of 202, *swayed;* 6 of 206, *range;* 22 of 206, *youth;* 28 of 206, *goals;* 18 of 239, *believe;* 21 of 250, *day.*

The occasion for most of these errors is simple enough. In the majority of cases the line cited comes at the bottom of a page in the Constable Library edition (Vols. I-III of the poems in 1898, Vol. IV in 1910), upon which the text of the Memorial edition is based. And as there is nothing to indicate that the first line of the succeeding page does not belong to the same group, no break is indicated in the text of the Memorial edition. In a few cases of lines which do not come at the end of the page in the Library edition, no break is indicated in that text, because in the texts upon which it was based, the lines did come at the end of the page without indication of break. In two cases the Library edition is unfaithful to the earlier text for no apparent reason. A case by itself is the "Centenary of Garibaldi" (III, 243), in which there is no division indicated between the first and second quatrains. And, conversely, breaks in the text have been erroneously introduced after line 25 of III, 42 (first introduced in the Library edition), and after line 16 of III, 48.

Meantime the Memorial edition has followed the blind practice which chiefly gave rise to this confusion,—that of making no indication of the strophic division when the last line of a group falls at the end of a page. The reader has no indication of the strophic division at the bottom of pages 83, 105, 258, 259 of Vol. I; pages 68 and 205 of Vol. II; and pages 25, 28, 34, 35, 37, 39, 45, 47, 48, 50, 70, 96, 127, 128, 153, 156, 160, 161, 162, 179, 190, and 202 of Vol. III.

We should note, before leaving this subject, that we have now the key to the curious grouping of the stanzas of "Love in the Valley" as it appears in the popular two-volume pocket edition (Constable and Scribner). Here, save for the first and last, the stanzas are printed in groups of twos separated by lines of periods. This grouping, which has no relation to the sense, has been the source of great bewilderment to at least one reader; and it is a relief to find it merely the result of misunderstanding. In "Poems and Lyrics of the Joy of Earth," 1883, Macmillan follows each stanza of this poem with three asterisks, as the stanzas of the poem in its earlier form were separated by short horizontal lines in the 1851 "Poems." In the Constable Library edition, however, only those stanzas are followed with asterisks that do not fall at the bottom of the page. But as every other stanza, beginning with the second, does fall at the bottom, it evidently remained in doubt thenceforward whether it were separate from, or to be connected with, the stanza that follows; and in the pocket edition the wrong interpretation was made. Hence endless confusion, no doubt, to numerous readers of what is probably Meredith's best-loved poem.

The general reader will be contented to feel that he has, in the Memorial edition, a handsomely printed and comprehensive col-

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lection of the poems (as well as the prose writings) of the great novelist. The more scholarly reader will note that he has yet to look for an edited and authoritative text at least of the poems.

JOSEPH WARREN BEACH.

The University of Minnesota.

Correspondence

THE ETHICS OF BUSINESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The continued prosecutions of the Trusts have drawn the attention of the community to the peculiarities of the problem without suggesting any explanation of its existence, beyond an hysterical insistence upon the personal depravity of the promoters of Trusts. We have, indeed, been told that the Trusts are manifestations of economic forces beyond the control of legislation, and we have been assured that remedies are, therefore, useless; since the true remedy must evolve from the action and interaction of the same forces which gave birth to the problem itself. But the problem is by no means entirely economic. The facts really difficult to explain are oftener psychological, and relate to the attitude of business men to one another and to the community. To the unprejudiced observer it is puzzling to see a sane, clear-headed man, who is in private life an admirable father, a sincere Christian, and a "pillar of the church," break completely in business the bounds of fair dealing, and rob and ruin his fellow men, not against the law, but through its forms. He would believe himself a thief if he took a silver spoon from his neighbor's dinner table; but he will steal his neighbor's whole fortune in Wall Street through some stock deal, and, *mirabile dictu*, be proud of it. This consciousness of rectitude, this attitude of injured innocence, which the business man assumes when his dealings are questioned, is the hardest thing of all to explain.

Yet in searching for our remedies for "big business" we have been too prone to credit the Rockefellers and Morgans with intentional wrong-doing, and too forgetful of the fact that their defence rests upon the traditional notions of the race about trade. Our remedies have been futile because ill-directed. In fact, the business ethics which supports the Wall Street gamblers and stock-waterers, finds its origin in the primitive conception of trade. The commonest defence is this: what you say is all right in every-day life, but in business it's different. We are dealing, in other words, with the existence of a double standard, one at home and one at the office. Moreover, that double standard is one of the oldest things the legal world knows about, for the earliest notion of a merchant is that he is not like other men, and that his actions are therefore governed by a special law. The Law Merchant was for centuries in England and other countries a special law governing exclusively the relations of merchants with one another, and had courts, judges, and procedure of its own. They were not amenable to the ordinary law of the land. If one merchant robbed another, the common law was not concerned. So the centuries during which all merchants and business men were governed by their own courts completely absolved, so far as business went, from the regular judicial hierarchy, laid, little by little, but firmly, that fundamental modern notion that somehow business need not accord with ordinary morality and legality.

The notion of the modern "muck-raker" is equally old. So far as concerns the relation of the merchant to his customer, all primitive law is based on the conception that merchants are thieves and steal from the rest of the community when they can. In fact, the early law looks on trade as only a species of stealing, and all its first regulations are aimed at preventing the merchant from getting an undue advantage of the purchaser, always providing that the latter is not himself a merchant; for the early law is concerned only with thefts and broken contracts between merchants and other people. When, therefore, a new form arises in the business world like the Trust, whose operations seem strange and unaccustomed, two notions at once are fathered by the primitive ideas about trade: first, the idea in the makers of the Trust, that their proceedings are perfectly legitimate; secondly, the idea of the consumers, that the Trust was formed to rob them. The battle waged between the two is, however, peculiar. The Trusts plead their "privilege," their exemption from the operation of ordinary law. The people plead the ordinary law, and declare that the burden of proof lies on the Trusts, for, according to all precedent, they are assumed to be thieves, and must prove their innocence. Here again the real defence of each lies too deeply imbedded in the past to be dislodged by statutes or prosecutions. The courts may apply the ordinary law, the people may apply the "ordinary" code of ethics, and certain men may be punished or deterred from action; but the real difficulty, the double standard, the idea that business has an ethics of its own, will not be eradicated so easily. We are concerned to-day, not with the remedying of forms and phrases, but with the gigantic problem of sloughing off the *thinking* of primitive men, with the immensely difficult task of *making the thoughts* as well as the clothes of the community modern.

ROLAND G. USHER.

Washington University, St. Louis, December 16.

POETS IN MEXICO.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It might appear from the amount of poetry, rhymed and unrhymed, that adorns the pages of most of the public prints to the south of us, that conditions in the Spanish Republics were particularly favorable to the production of that commodity. But even there the course of poesy does not always run smooth, as is shown by a very remarkable recent happening in Mexico. The Spanish "Society of Covadonga" had announced a prize of five hundred pesos for the best poem in honor of the Mother Country across the ocean. The announcement brought twenty-one eloquent responses; but alas, when the twenty-one hopeful ode-builders and their friends assembled in the Teatro Principal of Mexico City on the evening of October 31, they were thunderstruck to learn that all the poems submitted were "so deplorable, so far beneath the grandeur of the subject, so insignificant, that the jury found themselves reduced to the sad necessity of refusing to award the prize."

Among the twenty-one slighted bards was one whose proud Castilian soul refused to bow to the decision of even so august a body as the Junta Española of Covadonga. He presented his case, a few days ago, in the columns of the leading Mexico City daily, *El Imparcial*, with all the eloquent fervor that so glorious—and lucrative—a cause demands:

> The lofty amplitude of the standard set by your important daily, and the unforgetable gallantry with which your columns have honored my name, impel me to ask your noble hospitality for this letter and for the poem which accompanies it.
>
> I should be unfaithful to the tradition of civic courage which I have established in the past, if on this occasion—as never happened on any occasion during my long literary life on the Old Continent—I were to fail to step into the breach and furnish a needed personal example. . . .

Why, continues this literary Arnold Winkelried, should the jury, not satisfied with refusing a pecuniary reward to filial virtue, add insult to injury by impugning the intellect of Spain's eulogists? Why, if no one poem was preëminently meritorious, should they not have divided the sum equally among twenty-one not too prosperous versifiers? What right has such a jury, anyway, to set an arbitrary standard of excellence when their business is neither more nor less than to ladle out five hundred pesos? How would it be possible, moreover, for twenty-one bards to sing of so inspiring a subject and not one wander, even by accident, into a melodious and stirring strain? And in conclusion:

> I feel impelled, by way of protest against the offensive tone taken by this jury, to do something positive. The only way to prove whether the jury was justified in insulting these unrewarded poets—not content with refusing to reward them—is to publish the compositions which were presented. So, to set the matter in motion, I publish mine. . . .
>
> Thanking you, Señor Editor, for your kindness, it is a particular pleasure to me to reiterate that I am your most earnest friend and reliable humble servant, who hereby kisses your hands.
>
> FERNANDO DE ANTON DEL OLMET,
> Marquis of Dosfuentes.

Then follows the poem, an enthusiastic effort, indeed.

If the jury had been rewarding superlatives, they should have been compelled to give some recognition to the Marquis's eulogy—which really has some fine lines, for the reader who is able to Latinize himself sufficiently. Friends of the Muse will watch the columns of *El Imparcial* to see if the other poets follow this spirited example.

ROY TEMPLE HOUSE.

Norman, Okla., December 7.

FOREIGN AMERICANS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As one reads the account of the riotous demonstration which broke up the peace meeting at Carnegie Hall on December 12, perhaps the first aspect of the affair which impresses one is the grim humor of the situation, as illustrating the unforeseen difficulties which the friends of peace are likely to encounter among their own fellow-citizens, before their plans for

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international amity can be accomplished. On further consideration, however, the amusing features fade out of sight, in comparison with a real and formidable danger which the incident suggests. This has nothing to do directly with the fate of the peace treaties. The efforts to obtain their ratification will proceed to their ultimate success or failure, irrespective of what Mr. Koelble and his German-American Citizens League think about it. But what of the future influence upon the solidity of our nation, resulting from groups of citizens who, upon such a public occasion, act not as Americans, but as qualified Americans? This is not the first time that bodies of citizens have acted upon motives inspired by alien affiliations, nor will it be the last. Almost exactly four years ago, when New York was endeavoring to establish a more quiet Sunday, there were emphatic protests from large gatherings of German-Americans, who felt that their rights were infringed upon. From time to time other groups of what somebody has called hyphenated Americans have come to the front with opinions or claims dictated by racial considerations rather than by the needs and welfare of the nation. The character of the reception accorded to the visiting Irish players within the last few weeks has been influenced, in some important instances, by Irish-American societies. If, for any conceivable reason, the United States should be drawn into the Italian-Turkish controversy, she would find that a large number of her citizens would take an attitude determined by Mediterranean racial ties rather than by American citizenship. The Russian passport controversy presents a somewhat different aspect, inasmuch as the discrimination in this case is made by a foreign nation rather than by any body of our citizens. Yet it illustrates forcibly the problems which may be thrust upon this Government through the existence of heterogeneous groups of population in its body politic, and it is easy to imagine a situation where the diversity of interests might be emphasized by Hebrews within our own borders rather than by a foreign country.

Thus far in our history this danger has never assumed serious proportions, partly because our qualified Americans have mainly been of two or three principal races—the Germans, the Irish, and the Scandinavians—all of whom have inherited, for generations back, sentiments, principles, and habits of mind similar in the main, and which, in the persons of the early settlers of this country, made America. But when the time comes, visible in the not far distant future, when, in addition to these, we shall have large and influential groups and organizations of Italian-Americans, Croatian-Americans, Russian-Americans, and a host of others, each with its own set of racial and national prejudices and interests, the solidarity of the nation will be in a precarious position. If these adopted elements of our population wish to win and keep the sympathy of the American people as a whole, they will wisely refrain from exhibiting, publicly at least, views and opinions based on any other allegiance than that of an American citizen.

HENRY P. FAIRCHILD.

New Haven, Conn., December 18.

"A CHINESE APPEAL TO CHRISTENDOM."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a review in the *Nation* you refer to the volume "A Chinese Appeal to Christendom concerning Christian Missions," as demanding "very slight consideration" on the ground that it is a "forgery and a self-confessed deceit." Your reviewer writes further that "criticisms must be presented by an honest man to command respectful notice."

We suggest that the contentions submitted in a volume like this (or for that matter in any volume), might more justly (and more usefully as far as the readers of the review are concerned) be described or criticised on the basis of their intrinsic value rather than to be dismissed because the author has not put his own name on the title page.

A dismissal of a volume as "fraudulent" and as not entitled to consideration, on the ground that the author had hidden his personality behind some pseudonym, or that he had on the title page assumed a nationality to which he had no claim, would include in a similar condemnation a long series of books from "Les Lettres persanes" of Montesquieu, and "The Hindu Studies of Sir Alfred Lyall" to the "Letters from John Chinaman," by so recent and so widely accepted an author as Lowes Dickinson.

At the time we brought into publication the American edition of the "Chinese Appeal," it was our own understanding that the name of Lin Shao-Yang on the title page stood for that of a Chinese writer. The author took pains to inform us later that Lin Shao-Yang was a *nom de plume*. He explained, however, that he had been for many years a resident of China, and had come into close sympathetic relations with Chinese circles, both of low and of high degree. He asserted further that, while the pen was that of an English writer, the thoughts, feelings, and protests presented in the book were those of Chinese friends, associates, and acquaintances, who had asked him to be their spokesman to the outer world. A volume, written in this fashion, is not to be classed with the "foreign correspondence" of a "Jefferson Brick," conducted in the home office of a New York journal. In any case, if the book be an honest statement, and an accurate description of opinions and conditions of which the author has personal knowledge, it is, we suggest, not in order to dismiss it as "of no importance"; while the classification of the book as a "fraud" and "a deceit" because the author, in assuming a foreign name, has followed a long series of famous precedents, constitutes, we maintain, a literary injustice.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS.

New York, December 18.

[There is a distinction in kind between such a book as that in which Mr. Dickinson under a thin literary disguise compares Eastern with Western civilization, and the attempt of a writer to undermine a particular set of men and a particular movement in China by pretending to speak as a Chinese.—THE REVIEWER.]

CRIME AND SENTIMENTALISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The editorial remarks on the relation of sentimentalism to crime, in recent issues of the *Nation*, have caused me to notice instances of this sort of thing in the daily press. The following, from the *Wisconsin State Journal* of Madison, is typical of half-a-dozen such instances:

A fellow named Samenfink was arraigned before Judge August Backus at Milwaukee for killing a companion in a saloon fight. Judge Backus said, "You are sentenced to support the widow of the man you killed," and has taken steps to see that Samenfink does this.

Lawyers will laugh heartily over this, for the statutes describe crimes and prescribe the penalties therefor, and the penalties all say that the guilty man shall be locked up where he can be of little good to himself or any one else. The killer's great offence is that he has done some more or less indirect injury to society, and that there is possibility of reparation to widow or orphan doesn't enter into the matter at all.

Evidently, Judge Backus is no great shucks as a lawyer, but just a man of hard sense, with a fine idea of substantial justice. Occasionally we find one of that sort on the bench. NORMAN FOERSTER.

Madison, Wis., December 18.

Literature

PALESTINE TO-DAY.

Palestine and Its Transformation. By Ellsworth Huntington. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. Illustrations and maps. $2 net.

Among books on Palestine and Syria this, by dint of its suggestive and persuasive originality, should take a leading and permanent place. In it a professed geographer for the first time approaches a definitely connected series of historical and cultural Biblical problems. We have had the theologian interested in geography, the Orientalist interested in theology, and even the geologist with memories of the Bible. But now the comparatively new science of geography—new, at least, in this country as a university discipline—vindicates its claim to a separate and real existence. For this book is specifically different from all its predecessors on Palestine. And the earth, to Professor Huntington, is no dead thing on which men walk and with which they do as they will, but it has its breathings and pulsations, as though it were in truth an animal by itself as the old geographers dreamed.

But though everywhere this freshness of touch appears, it is in the latter half of the book that Professor Huntington's principal contribution is made. When applied baldly to topography the formulæ of the geographer and geologist do not seem to the layman, at least in themselves, to lead us far. It does not sound convincing as an explanation of the history of Judea to hear that it is a peneplain broken up into a dissected plateau, and it is really Mr. Hunting-

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ton's own luminous descriptions and analyses which carry off his technicalities. He makes us see the uniquely isolated plateau of Judea, the heart of the country; the accessible Samaria; the difference between Philistia and Phœnicia; the tremendous trench of the Jordan and the Dead Sea, and the wilderness of Judea sloping to the great dry land of the south.

Then he passes from this examination and description of the land, geographic district by district, to a consideration of the climate and its mutations, and applies the hypothesis of pulsatory changes of climate, already stated in his "Pulse of Asia." Here he is on ground peculiarly his own, and is facing the great problems not only of this land but of many others. It is an unescapable fact that Palestine once supported an indefinitely larger population than it does at present; that its surrounding deserts were traversed again and again by great armies along routes now, for lack of water, virtually impassable, and, save for handfuls of hungry Bedawin, uninhabitable; that in the desert beyond Jordan there were great cities with sufficient abundance of water to supply baths and naumachias; that trade routes were in regular use which can now be attempted only by a few travellers at the risk of their lives and of half of their beasts, or not at all. For all this the history of the rise and fall of Palmyra is most significant. By the gradual drying and closing of routes across the desert to the south, it grew for a time to be a town of wealth and importance. But, later, the route which it commanded became in its turn impassable; the caravans went still further north, and Palmyra sank in drought and hunger.

But the change was not uniform; it seems often to have been spasmodic. Why does the population of the desert overflow, with more or less permanent results? And when the desert thus moves, it is certain that nothing can turn it. It is evidently driven by hard economic necessity which knows no restraint and fears no barrier. Of two such great migrations we definitely know, and beyond question there were others. Tribes, among whom were the Hebrews, came out of the desert and threw themselves on the more fertile surrounding lands. Much later, the Arab tribes under the banner of Islam did the same. Forced by what law did they move?

To answer these questions, Mr. Huntington rehearses the various theories of climate. Some have held that climate, except for small, regular variations, is uniform, finding their explanation of the difference between the present situation and the past in bad government—an explanation which does not explain. Government in the East cannot fill the wells of the desert and make naumachias possible in the barren plateau beyond Jordan any more than a Republican administration here can insure good crops. Others find the secret in deforestation; but it is at least as certain that forests grow where there is water as that rain falls and water is preserved where there are forests. Further, Palestine, with its population, can never have been so densely wooded as really to attract rain. Thus this hypothesis does not sufficiently explain the general situation and completely fails when applied to such an individual case as Palmyra. A third view accepts a change in climate, but makes it a comparatively steady process of drying, extending from the glacial period into historic times. In this there is undoubtedly much truth, but it does not meet all the facts; especially it does not meet the evidence that there have been recurrent dry periods in the past. In consequence, there is much to be said for Mr. Huntington's own hypothesis of gradual drying, combined with considerable temporary fluctuations. That is, on his curve of climatic change, he would insert several large "humps" and an infinity of smaller ones, yet all tending gradually towards dryness.

The "humps" he then endeavors to bring into agreement with the known movements of history. When there was rain enough and crops prospered, there was peace in the lands; but when rain and crops failed, the pinch came, the peoples were restless, and if the drought were long continued, there were great migrations. That such causes were contributory to the greater popular wanderings no one can doubt. Questionings can rise only when we try to establish elaborate synchronisms between hypothetically plotted curves of climate and the accepted eras of history. In this book, three great eras are found, both of climate and of history. The first, the primitive historic, ends about 1200 B. C., with a sudden dip to dryness and the chaos of the Aramean migrations. The second spans the life of Israel in Palestine, of the Greeks in their islands and peninsula, of Italy in the west and Assyria and Persia in the east, and ends about 600 A. D. in another dry period and in the movements of the Muslim armies on Asia and Africa and of the barbarian hordes on Europe. The third runs to our own time and may, in its turn, end in drought and movements of the peoples.

How Mr. Huntington works out his synchronisms cannot be treated in detail here. In that connection, he has an elaborate and exceedingly interesting examination of the strands of the Dead Sea with Caspian parallels and a geological suggestion as to the site of Sodom. Another chapter of extreme interest is that contributed, as to its facts and opinions, by Prof. H. C. Butler of Princeton. That the physical conditions of Syria as a whole have altered greatly since the early part of the Christian era he is convinced, and he here gives the archæological evidence for it, the most striking part of which, perhaps, is a chronological curve of inscriptions, according to their number, showing the variations in architectural activity and presumably in prosperity.

Of course, much in all this is conjectural, and some few points are open to immediate correction. Thus, when Douglas Carruthers of the British Museum (quoted on p. 331) was told by the Shararat Arabs that their tribe, driven by a seven years' drought, had migrated in the days of Mohammed through Egypt to Tunis, the statement must be regarded as a legendary reflection of the historical raid by Bedawi tribes on Egypt and north Africa in the eleventh century A. D., reflected otherwise in the Beni Hilal romance. On the historical basis for this raid, reference should be made to Hartmann's article in the *Zeitschrift für afrikanische und oceanische Sprachen*, IV, pp. 311 ff. But, all in all, Mr. Huntington's book marks a new and definite departure in the investigation of the history of the civilization of Syria.

CURRENT FICTION.

A Likely Story. By William De Morgan. New York: Henry Holt & Co.

By far the most amusing part of this book is the "Apology in Confidence" which brings up its rear. "An Affair of Dishonor" was not received with enthusiasm by either Mr. De Morgan's critics or his audience. Not only were reviewers unanimous in the opinion that the book showed a sad lapse from the writer's standards, but lay admirers besieged him with letters of regret and condolence. Mr. De Morgan here delivers a whimsical apology for having given the public what it did not expect of him. "He cannot free himself from a haunting sense that he was guilty of a gross neglect in not giving them fuller warning that the said fifth volume was not Early Victorian, either in style or substance." He is aware of the great principle that an artist is rightly expected to produce, at regular intervals, "a picture or a volume on all fours with the work from his hand which has first attracted public attention." In order to justify that expectation, he himself should have offered in his fifth novel not only something Early Victorian, but something Suburban. This he failed to do, and for his failure he confesses that he has been properly punished.

This is excellent fooling, but, of course, it does not go to the root of the general discontent with "An Affair of Dishonor." This fact is made clear enough by the very extracts from reviews and letters which Mr. De Morgan

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here marshals. The upshot of their complaint is not primarily that a beloved writer has done something new, but that he has done something worthless, or nearly so. "An Affair of Dishonor" is a dull and commonplace story. And as the novelist had done nothing dull or commonplace so long as he dealt with "Victorian" people and events, it was only human and natural that we should lament his departure from that living scene. The truth is, this "apology" shows our friend himself in an engagingly human and natural mood. He is put out by the fizzle of "An Affair," and shows his pique. His mistake is in attempting to defend that lifeless yarn: it is clear that he does not himself feel the essential difference in sincerity and spontaneity between that figment of historical romance and his true stories. As for "A Likely Story" he prides himself on its being so constructed as to suit all parties, Victorian in its main substance, with a "very pretty suburb" involved, and only a hundred thousand words or so in length, instead of the quarter of a million which has been deprecated by critics of the earlier books. It is, in fact, a recognizable and fairly creditable De Morgan. With the somewhat humdrum group of Londoners and suburban folk who conduct the main action, is involved an episode of the Italian cinque cento, conveyed to our moderns by the lips of a talking picture and of a supplementary manuscript. Some such ghostly connection of past and present played a part, it will be recalled, in "Alice-for-Short." Here the rôle of the picture spook is of greater importance, since she is cast as practical adviser and benefactor to the present. Where the book falls short of its "Victorian" forerunners is in the lack of lovable characters. But if there was one thing that readers of "Joseph Vance" and "Somehow Good" could not reasonably expect of Mr. De Morgan, it was that he should go on indefinitely creating Lossies and Christophers and Sallies for our affections to twine about.

Jane Dawson. By Will N. Harben. New York: Harper & Bros.

Of the two leading interests in this story, one is the later life of a betrayed woman; the other the theological warfare between a strict and narrow sect and what the author calls sometimes agnosticism, sometimes Unitarianism. Whether this use of language is part of the Georgia local coloring is a question which may be left to the American Unitarian Association, without benefit of book-reviewer. There are several good sermons in the book which may serve as evidence. The woman fears that her unbelief, the natural fruit of her early bitter wrongs, may work injury to her son in the sight of the congregation and of the girl he loves. The son, as free a thinker as herself, has for rival a man at the opposite pole of belief from his own, and thus war is waged between the doxies and between the more instinctive forces of love and hate and spite. Of revenge, there is an exemplary, if unusual, absence. There are effective climaxes and surprising anti-climaxes. Quite dramatically striking is Jane Dawson's resolve to appear in the long-unvisited church, in order to renounce disbelief for her son's sake. But the passionately fond relation between mother and son which makes this resolve ring true takes away all substance from the scene where George first knowingly faces the father—however repentant—who had ruined his mother's life, and, far from condemning, seeks to comfort him. It remains to say that parish tyrannies, free thinking, tortured hearts, sermons, and love scenes are combined readably, if not with the strictest feeling for art. Welcome will be the day when at least the educated in stories shall cease to say "like I did."

The Moon Lady. By Helen Huntington. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Moon Lady is an American, a widow, a famous novelist, and a dipsomaniac. Unfortunate in her parents, she has been exceptionally fortunate in her breeding, and the strange charm and force of her young womanhood make her the wife of an honest and well-to-do New Yorker of good social standing. It is he who calls her "the moon lady," and he worships her always as a superior being. Nevertheless, though he is not her match in brilliancy, he has the physical and moral stability she lacks, and before his death sees very clearly the perils of her temperament. Their only son inherits the father's stamina. When the story proper opens, Humphrey Wylde is a promising young architect, on the verge of successful love. He is devoted to his mother (who bears the Herrickean name of Dioneme) without very well understanding her. She, for her part, thinks of him as a nice, solid, rather stupid boy: her maternal nature is not fully developed. Her success as the writer of a somewhat fanciful and effusive type of fiction is assured, and she makes enough money to maintain a very comfortable establishment in New York. The fact that she is the chief "provider" already gives Humphrey uneasiness, and he is most anxious to make head with his profession on that account. But Mrs. Wylde's fondness for stimulants passes from the deplorable to the impossible. She is always on the verge of excess; and it presently devolves upon the son to give up his profession and his hopes of marriage in order to become the attendant and protector of his mother. The situation would be more dignified if so much stress were not laid upon the hushing-up motive for Humphrey's sacrifice. But he makes it in good faith, and, as it seems, in vain. The world, led by the insinuations of a villanous rival, is ingenuous enough to set him down as a mere idler, preferring to live on his mother's bounty, and keeping her from society so that she might not be distracted from her output. The girl of his choice is able to believe this. But, of course, it is all straightened out in the end. Dioneme, almost *in extremis*, discovers what her son's sacrifice has been, and declares her own fault in a final burst of womanliness and magnanimity. The tale, not without its melodramatic elements of plot, is told with delicacy and even distinction of style.

A SPANISH ANARCHIST.

The Life, Trial, and Death of Francisco Ferrer. By William Archer. New York: Moffat, Yard & Co. $3 net.

Two years have elapsed since the judicial assassination of Francisco Ferrer. During that time, little has appeared in print which would aid the intelligent reader in forming an unbiassed judgment with reference to Ferrer, the man, the educational movement he promulgated, and the sinister events which culminated in the tragedy of Montjuich. Legends have grown up around Ferrer's name. The campaign of calumny instituted by his clerical opponents has been met with exaggerated eulogiums on the part of friends until the truth seemed hopelessly obscured. Happily, an impartial biographer has been found in Mr. Archer, whose religious and political opinions predispose him to neither side of the controversy, and whose one purpose is to arrive at the truth. In this attempt he has been successful, as readers of *McClure's Magazine* already know.

First of all, the author dispels the legend which represents Ferrer as a monster in private life. The true story of his unfortunate marriage indicates that he was more sinned against than sinning. The man who refrained from pressing charges against the woman who had attempted his life deserves credit for an unusual degree of chivalry. That he was a devoted father appears from the evidence of his daughters. On the other hand, he was far from a model of puritanic virtue. In early life he was deeply compromised in anarchistic plots, and doubtless approved of the methods of terrorism. But with years came disillusion. He eventually pinned his faith to the cause of education and literary propaganda. At the very moment when the Barcelona riots were in progress, the alleged instigator and chief of the revolution was quietly engaged in translating, out of the English, moral books for the young of a distinctly "goody-goody" sort, careful only to expurgate all denominational allusions.

A bequest from a French lady, Mlle.

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Meunier, enabled Ferrer to realize a long cherished educational project. The result was the famous Escuela Moderna of Barcelona. There children of tender years were taught to hate capitalism, government, religion. The effect of such a nursery of anarchy in Spain's most turbulent province caused concern to those in authority. Few will blame the Spanish Government for closing its doors; yet perhaps some such harsh protest was necessary. The parochial schools were notoriously bad, and the secular educational system little better. If at the present day the municipality of Barcelona is studying the public school systems of America and Europe in an earnest endeavor to improve its own, no small part of this newly awakened interest is directly traceable to Francisco Ferrer.

The crime of the Calle Mayor was the beginning of Ferrer's end. Although a civil tribunal acquitted him of complicity in the attempt upon the lives of Spain's Sovereigns, nevertheless his connection with the anarchist Morral was compromising. The nation at large believed him guilty. So it was that in 1909, when the Barcelona riots had been quelled and officialdom demanded a victim, the authorities sought to inculpate the most prominent of Spain's anarchists. Even those who have carefully followed the press reports will be unprepared for some of the facts which Mr. Archer's book discloses. For the first time a full, detailed account of the trial, based on official records, is printed in English. The author goes over every scrap of evidence, and riddles the prosecution's case with merciless logic.

The iniquitous "law of jurisdictions" decrees that all offences against the army shall be tried before military tribunals, and this in time of peace. The author emphasizes the fact that Ferrer's trial was no ordinary drumhead court-martial. Peace had been restored, the Constitution reëstablished, yet Ferrer had to face a board of officers who were at one and the same time prosecutors and judges. Worse still, his defender, too, had to be an army officer, chosen by the defendant out of a list of names unknown to him. The captain chosen was loyal, but utterly unskilled in the niceties of the law. Nearly all the evidence brought against Ferrer was of the hearsay variety. In one case, a witness testified to having read in a newspaper that the prisoner had been seen distributing dynamite cartridges; but the original article was not produced in court, nor any attempt made to learn the source of the writer's information. Of the seventy witnesses, Ferrer was permitted to cross-examine only four. One of the most important of these was spirited out of the country before the case was ended. Ferrer's friends were banished to the interior, and not allowed to testify in his favor; yet the prosecutor had the effrontery to state that not a single individual had been found willing to testify for the accused. In his final plea, the prosecutor made numerous assertions wholly unsupported by evidence without hindrance on the part of the court. The prosecution occupied so much time at the final session that very little was left for the defence. The whole trial was disgracefully hurried.

But admitting that the trial was a travesty, was not Ferrer after all guilty? It may be said with all assurance that he was innocent of the charge on which he was convicted, that of being "author and chief" of the July revolution of 1909. There is no evidence to show that he was the master mind of that revolt, and much to indicate that he was not. A more spontaneous outbreak never occurred. A civil court, even in Spain, would certainly have acquitted him on that charge. It does, however, appear that Ferrer was guilty of a specific overt act of sedition in urging the inhabitants of the little hamlet of Premiá to proclaim a republic, but no more guilty than the alcalde and several others who turned state's evidence to escape the consequences of their own treason. Mr. Archer, accordingly, believes that Ferrer did not deserve to escape unpunished. As one of several leaders in a mob of republicans, he probably deserved some slight penalty.

Ferrer is to most an unsympathetic personage. The crudity of his intellectual programme reveals the self-assurance of ignorance. He fought dogmatism with a dogmatism no less uncompromising. His courage, sincerity, and unselfish zeal for the cause in which he believed force a certain respect, even while one deplores his teachings as incendiary. But Ferrer, living, was no hero. The civilized world lifted its protest in his behalf because a grievous wrong was done him, not because it championed his opinions. His enemies by taking his life have conferred upon him a quasi-immortality.

Frederick James Furnivall: A Volume of Personal Record. New York: Henry Frowde. $1.40 net.

The present volume will revive a host of delightful memories in the minds of Dr. Furnivall's numerous friends on this side of the water. We see him again feeding the pigeons in the British Museum yard, or conversing with a group of scholars in his favorite corner at the A B C tea-rooms in New Oxford Street, or taking his afternoon nap on the island up the river, which was the regular objective point of his Sunday excursions—his ruddy face and flowing white hair irresistibly suggesting a recumbent Father Thames. No formal biography, perhaps, would be so likely to preserve the image of this "eternal boy," in all its freshness and charm, as the sheaf of "memories" (so the editors designate them) that make up this volume. An excellent biographical sketch from the pen of his loyal disciple and collaborator, John Munro, introduces the work, and there follow forty-nine tributes of varying length from as many different people who, in one way or another, were associated with Dr. Furnivall. That the list should include contributions from an A B C waitress and from members of his sculling club, as well as from some of the most eminent scholars in Europe and America, is just as he would have had it. And, really, making allowance for differences in literary accomplishment, what was most distinctive of Furnivall—his universal humanity—shines out as clearly in the one class of "memories" as in the other. In this quality, indeed, he was probably closer to Shakespeare and Chaucer than any man of recent generations.

As is generally known, Dr. Furnivall had no training for his life work, except what might be gained from the ordinary classical education. For upwards of ten years after leaving Cambridge in 1846, his principal activity was in the Christian Socialist movement, under the leadership of Kingsley and Maurice, especially in connection with the Working Men's College, which appealed strongly to his democratic instincts. It is worthy of note that the chief initial impulse to the immense achievement of Furnivall's life was given by Tennyson's "Idylls of the King." It was this book especially that fixed his attention upon the past and made him determine in the words of his biographer that our "forefathers' voices should be made audible and significant to modern men." Then came the Philological Society's project of the New English Dictionary which gradually took shape in the early sixties. But it soon became manifest that no adequate work of this kind was possible, so long as the great majority of mediæval English books still remained in manuscript. And so with a courage that reminds one of Daniel O'Connell and the Catholic Association, Furnivall founded in 1864 the Early English Text Society for the purpose of getting the materials into print. The support which it derived from its connection with the project of the Philological Society was probably necessary for the existence of the new organization, but lexicographical interests were not the exclusive or even the dominant influence with its founder. As he himself said, "my chief aim has been throughout to illustrate the social condition of the English people in the past." Moreover, the prominent place which is given to Arthurian texts among its earliest issues betrays the source of Furnivall's original interest in the enterprise. Pecuniary difficulties were not the only ones that beset the society. Furnivall's own knowledge of Early Eng-

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lish was limited, and even in his latest days, he described himself—too modestly, as all the world knows—as "a worker, not a scholar." By strict adherence, however, to the letter of the manuscript and by careful collation of proofs he established the high standard of accuracy which with few exceptions distinguishes the society's publications. No scholar who has had occasion to reëdit a text after him has failed to admire the scientific exactness of his work. But such standards were far from being general in the sixties, and the present writer has heard him describe how Thomas Wright, the well-known antiquarian, turned over the proof-reading of a text to some chance person. When Furnivall discovered it and took him to task for this laxity, Wright replied that he had tested a few pages and found the collation pretty well done, so he saw no need of bothering further about the matter. It was only in his occasional happy-go-lucky methods of choosing editors that Furnivall sometimes laid himself open to criticism, as for example in a certain amusing instance, related in this volume, when a stranger wrote to him inquiring concerning an early version of Boethius still unpublished. In Furnivall's reply, he confessed his ignorance of the subject, but invited his unknown correspondent to edit the text. His instinct, however, served him aright, for this same correspondent is now an English historian of high rank.

The circumstances under which Furnivall founded the Chaucer Society—next to the founding of the Early English Text Society his greatest service to literature—are so well known that we do not expect any new light on the subject from the present volume. Similarly with the Browning Society. On the other hand, one of the most interesting contributions to these pages, is Sir J. A. H. Murray's authoritative account of the leading part which Furnivall played in connection with the great Oxford Dictionary. He infused vitality into every thing that he undertook with the single exception, perhaps, of the Shelley Society, which, as he used to say laughingly, he started because his father was the physician who attended Mary Shelley in her first confinement.

It is invidious, perhaps, to single out for commendation any particular tributes where all are so heartfelt, but those of Alois Brandl and A. W. Pollard call up with especial vividness different aspects of their subject's character. Furnivall, however, was the very embodiment of life, and so even in closing this memorial volume, it is difficult to realize that the happy spirit who imparted energy to so many men of his generation, the indefatigable worker whose influence was, perhaps, the most comprehensive in the whole history of English scholarship, has paid at last the inevitable debt to nature.

The Individualization of Punishment. By Raymond Saleilles. With an Introduction by Gabriel Tarde. Translated from the second French edition by Rachel Szold Jastrow. With an Introduction by Roscoe Pound. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $4.50 net.

This volume stands fourth in the American Criminal Science Series. Whatever may be said of some of the other numbers, the American Institute has done well in undertaking the translation of this thoughtful and scholarly work, the writer of which, professor of comparative law in the University of Paris, holds a position of authority in the subject that formed the chief topic of discussion at the International Prison Congress held in Washington last year. We regret, however, that we cannot speak highly of the translation. The translation reads well, and shows skill in turning the French into the English idiom, but it constantly tones down the author's meaning and not seldom misses his point. As an extreme illustration, on page 161 we record five positive errors, all of them material, in two of which the author's meaning is neatly reversed. It is true, however, that, while the argument of M. Saleilles is clear in its larger outlines, his style is often meditative and difficult to follow; and the translator has done well in dividing his long chapters into sections, or shorter chapters, with appropriate titles. Professor Pound contributes materially to the value of the work by showing its bearing upon our American institutions.

M. Saleilles arrives at his problem through an historical survey of penal theory which we must regretfully pass by. Sufficient to say that to-day the theory of punishment faces (roughly speaking) the classical school, represented in the French codes of 1791 and 1810, and the Italian school of Lombroso and his successors. The classical school presupposes moral freedom and responsibility, and the same degree of responsibility for all normal persons. Hence, there is no individualization of punishment. The penalty is determined objectively, by the nature of the crime, and not by the nature of the criminal. The Italian school is deterministic. While it has more or less receded from the position of Lombroso, that the criminal is either congenitally incorrigible or a criminal by accident, crime is still viewed as a disease. Hence, the preventive or corrective measures (no longer penal) should be adjusted to the individual.

M. Saleilles's position is one of compromise—yet of open compromise. He is a believer in responsibility, though he rejects the fiction of equal responsibility in all who are not manifestly insane. Apart from responsibility, however, punishment would be not only meaningless, and even barbarous, but without support in social sentiment. Yet, when responsibility is once admitted, it has nothing more to say. Since (as he holds) the degree of responsibility is indeterminable, the individualization of punishment must rest upon other considerations, which are mainly reformatory, but partly also deterrent and measured by the objective gravity of the offence. The author's analysis of these considerations is most instructive. What he finally stands for is a discretionary administration of penalties, directed by the judge and supplemented by the prison authorities, which shall nevertheless be uniform and consistent; that is to say, though penalties are not to be prescribed by law, they shall nevertheless rest upon a scientific basis of fact. And the main fact in each case will be the "subjective criminality"—the character, moral status, and point of view—of the individual. But this seems to mean (as Tarde also hints in his Introduction) that responsibility is, after all, the chief factor in the decision.

M. Saleilles rejects the criterion of responsibility because, in his opinion the legal definition, which makes it a matter of premeditation and will, is wholly false; for him responsibility is constituted by an "inherent power of resistance" in the character of the man. That is to say, the motives or reasons expressed in the act are not only indeterminable by other persons, and incommunicable, but are quite opaque and unintelligible to the thinking and willing agent. For him, then, as for others, his "character" is something foreign and impersonal. "It is strange," says Tarde in his Introduction, "that when the criminologists of our day, whether naturalists or sociologists, look for the causes of crime, they find only impersonal *factors*, like climate, social environment, season, race, cranial, and other anomalies." This repeats the statement regarding criminal science (in our review of the earlier numbers of the series) which aroused Professor Wigmore's astonishment. Our purpose now is to suggest that it applies—remotely, but all the more significantly—even to so subjective a writer as M Saleilles.

After all, what is wrong with premeditation? It is shown, M. Saleilles replies, that a crime may be well planned, but none the less the outcome of a fixed and unalterable idea, or obsession; that is to say, the possibility of refraining from it has never been considered. But can we then say that it was in any high degree premeditated? Genuine premeditation must, it should seem, involve a weighing of alternatives. The problem is, in fact, the same as that of motive, or intention, in ethics. It is only recently that moralists have begun to perceive that the intent expressed, *e. g.*, in driving a motor car at

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high speed in a crowded street is very different from that expressed in the same act on a country road. But when the question of premeditation is extended to cover the considerations against the act, we have, in the scope of consequences considered by the agent, a fair measure of his responsibility. It is hardly too much to say that every deficiency of responsibility, whatever else it may be, is a limitation of horizon. This may be illustrated by the "aboulia" of the neurasthenics, mentioned by M. Saleilles, and the view is borne out by his own analysis of insanity (85).

We venture to suggest, therefore, that M. Saleilles has been too hasty in abandoning the legal criterion of responsibility for a supposedly scientific "power of resistance." And this suggestion may apply to the criminal-science movement generally. The jurists have doubtless something to learn from the sociologists—perhaps they have a special need to cultivate open-mindedness generally—but it is not yet time to discard their whole heritage of ideas. Had M. Saleilles undertaken to develop the legal conception of premeditation, he might have found it a useful instrument for individualization; for the scope of consequences actually considered by a criminal, and thus the extent to which he can probably be reached by punishment, may often be determined from his speech and behavior. Furthermore, in the nature of the consequences accepted or rejected, he might have discovered a useful and intelligible criterion for "character."

Touring in 1600: A Study in the Development of Travel as a Means of Education. By E. S. Bates. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. $3 net.

It would have required a dull mind to remove entirely the racy flavor which clings to the material set forth in this volume. Yet we suspect that few scholars could have done it greater justice than Mr. Bates. He has manifestly studied long and furiously, and has an extraordinary range of references to out-of-the-way, often unpublished, documents; yet the text is never cluttered, maintaining to the end a spirited narrative. Few who have not looked into the subject can quite imagine the difficulties of travel in the sixteenth century. The fact that seeing foreign lands was accounted an essential part of a young man's education and the remarkable acquaintance of Elizabethan writers with general European tendencies have blinded later generations to the obstacles. The following admonishments gathered by Mr. Bates from the guide-books of those days reflect the conditions:

> A traveller has need of a falcon's eye, an ass's ears, a monkey's face, a merchant's words, a camel's back, a hog's mouth, a deer's feet. And the traveller to Rome—the back of an ass, the belly of a hog, and a conscience as broad as the king's highway.
>
> Line your doublet with taffetie; taffetie is lice-proof.
>
> Never journey without something to eat in your pocket, if only to throw to dogs when attacked by them.
>
> When going by coach, avoid women, especially old women; they always want the best places.
>
> At sea, remove your spurs; sailors make a point of stealing them from those who are being seasick. Keep your distance from them in every case; they are covered with vermin.
>
> In an inn bedroom which contains big pictures, look behind the latter to see they do not conceal a secret door or a window.
>
> Women should not travel at all and married men not much.

Some of these may be set down as the exaggeration of smartness; others are evidently true. The now simple passage from Calais to Dover, for instance, sometimes required weeks. "In 1610 two ambassadors waited at Calais fourteen days before they could make a start; . . . one gentleman, after a most unhappy night, found himself at Nieuport next morning and had to wait three days before another try could be made."

Mr. Bates gives a brief description of a few of the travellers upon whose diaries or notes he has drawn. One was Fynes Moryson, who, starting in 1591 at the age of twenty-five, toured through Germany, the Low Countries, Denmark, Poland, Austria, Switzerland, and Italy. Upon his return after four years, he at once joined his brother who was setting out for Jerusalem and who died in Fynes's arms at Aleppo "while the Turks stood round, jeering and thieving." We like the simple epitaph which Fynes there composed and which a later traveller discovered and published:

> To thee, dear Henry Morison,
> Thy brother Phines, here left alone,
> Hath left this fading memorie.
> For monuments and all must die.

Another of the travellers was Pietro della Valle, of Naples and Rome, who was set wandering when, after a twelve years' courtship, his lady was given to some one else. Sped by masses and provided with staff and scrip, he vowed he would visit the Holy Sepulchre. In Babylon he married a girl of eighteen who shortly afterwards died; and through the remaining four years of his travels he carried her body with him, like Tamburlaine the great. Again, there was Thomas Dallam, who must needs bear a huge organ of his own make as a gift from Queen Elizabeth to the Grand Turk. It "played chimes, and song-tunes by itself, had two dummy-men on it who fanfared on silver trumpets, and, above, an imitation holly bush filled with mechanical birds which sang and shook their wings."

The author corrects the impression that Latin was generally understood by intelligent people. Oddly, he finds that it was less used for conversation south of the Alps than north of them, and that the pronunciation of Latin varied very much. One writer (Andrew Boorde), giving a list of the commonest phrases heard abroad, renders "How do you fare?"—"Quo modo stat cum vostro corps?" Other hybrids there were in plenty, such as: "Si tu es plus sapientis quam nos sumus, tu es plus beholden to God Almighty quam nos sumus." Italian and later French came near to being the international tongue in those days. It is certainly true that neither of those countries was likely to be left from a traveller's itinerary, even though entering the papal centre was dangerous for Protestants.

There are instructive chapters on inns and social life. At Berne, it seems, it was illegal to sit at table more than five hours; at Bâle "10 A. M. to 6 P. M. was the maximum"; and in Saxony an innkeeper "was forbidden to serve more than four dishes at a meal," but the dishes were commonly likened to Sicilian tyrants, each "a more fearful monster" than its predecessor. Spending the night at an inn was avoided as far as possible by gentlemen, who generally carried letters to men of their own class and were entertained by them. At night windows were not open, and in many places on the continent men, women, and children lay together in one room, with the heat so great, as one Englishman complained, that it seemed as though a snake were twining about his legs. When beds were provided, a gentleman might find himself compelled to share his with a drunken carter, a disgrace which he generally mollified by being drunk himself. If we may believe the reports of travellers, conviviality was carried further in Russia than elsewhere. So it is stated that when a Russian lady entertained, "it was etiquette to send round afterwards to know if they all got home safely." And there are cases recorded where men stalked the streets naked, having sold their last rag to the bar-keeper. Smoking, however, was prohibited in 1634, "under penalty of slitting the nostrils," on the ground that it started fires and polluted "the Muscovite's breath when he addressed the saints."

We select one further illustration of travellers' experiences because it corresponds with one important phase of Elizabethan and Renaissance character—the frequent chance to see torture and public executions. Bacon, we recall, advises the visitor abroad not to neglect these opportunities. Distressing evidence of cruelty the traveller could hardly escape—men broken on the wheel, gangs of victims chained and flogged, and jokes played upon idiots. The tolerance of brutality, even fondness for

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it. is one of the puzzles of that great age.

Notes

The Index of the *Nation*, July 1 to December 31,, will be printed with the issue of January 4.

Volume XXVII, "Various Readings and Bibliography," completes the Memorial edition of George Meredith, issued in this country, for subscribers to the whole set only, by Charles Scribner's Sons. This concluding volume is noticed in the Bibliophile column of the *Nation* this week.

The list of private collectors of books and literaria in the United States, which was printed in "The Annual Library Index, 1910," issued by the office of the *Publishers' Weekly*, is undergoing a thorough revision for insertion in the Annual covering 1911; the latter will appear early in March. The revision will include additional names, making the total number about 1,500, arranged geographically by States as before. The compilers would be glad to hear, before January 15, from any whose libraries ought to be in the list.

The George H. Doran Co. will publish in January a novel whose heroine is Queen Elizabeth; the author is H. C. Bailey.

Books announced by Doubleday, Page & Co. include: "Danny's Own Story," by Don Marquis; "The Recording Angel," by Mrs. Corra Harris; "Counsel for the Defence," by Leroy Scott; "In Search of Arcady," by Nina Wilcox Putnam; "The Radium Terrors," by Albert Dorrington; "The Guests of Hercules," by A. M. and C. N. Williamson, and "The White Waterfall," by Charles Francis Dwyer.

"The Book-Lovers' Anthology," edited, with notes, by R. M. Leonard, will be added immediately to Frowde's series of Oxford Editions of Standard Authors. It consists of passages in poetry and prose relating to books in all their aspects.

Major H. B. Smith, chief of detectives and assistant provost marshal-general under Gen. Lew Wallace, has put together, under the title "Between the Lines: Secret Service Stories Told Fifty Years After" (Booz Brothers), his personal records of service during the Civil War. To the reader who expects a thrilling account of detective experiences the title will seem misleading; for the book is made up almost entirely of official correspondence, reports, dispatches, and affidavits, with only a few attempts at narration. As a contribution to the history of the war, however, the material was worth printing.

"The Norsemen in America," by Dr. Fridtjof Nansen, the title of the leading article in the *Geographical Journal* for December, is an attempt to dispel some of the clouds of mystery that overhang the voyages of his great compatriot navigators. After a careful investigation of the Norse-Icelandic literature of the twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth centuries, "chiefly put into writing in that strange island, Iceland," he comes to these conclusions: "That the Norsemen have discovered America, and have had intercourse with the land and its natives probably during some long period; but the narratives of the discovery and of voyages to Wineland are legendary. The Icelanders and the Greenlanders may have transferred the ideas, especially of the Fortunate Isles, from the legends to the discovered land; and the saga of Wineland the Good has then been gradually formed in the course of time, by putting together feature after feature from old tales and legends, with some real knowledge of lands in the West." In the animated discussion following the reading of the paper before the Royal Geographical Society, Sir Clements Markham agreed with Dr. Nansen, but Lord Curzon was strongly inclined to hold to the belief that Wineland was really one of the discoveries of the Norsemen.

If there are any readers who enjoy the current jargon of newspaper book reviews, they should take delight in Frederic Taber Cooper's "Some American Story Tellers" (Holt). Mr. Cooper uses with exceptional lavishness a small number of adjectives; "big," "vital," "vivid," "epic," "unsparing," "relentless," "subtle," "pervading," "far-reaching," are, to use some more of his favorites, "recurrent," "insistent," "inevitable" in his book. With the aid of these words and a few others he attempts to characterize fourteen writers of fiction, varying in point of view from Kate Douglas Wiggin to Ambrose Bierce, and in literary quality from Robert W. Chambers to Mrs. Wharton. As to literary standards his catchwords are "economy of means" (negatively illustrated in his style) and "the best rules of modern construction," by which he seems to mean something approximating the short-story methods of Maupassant. He has also a theory of the "epic novel" which is set forth at length in four or five different essays. Of the authors treated, the late Frank Norris is his favorite. "Such in brief are the materials and the methods of Norris's art as a novelist: big words, big phrases, big ideas, an untrammelled freedom of self-expression." How well this description fits Mr. Micawber! Perhaps the best essay is the one on "O. Henry"; it is short, and it retells some good stories.

C. O. Minchin, of the "Minchin rod," the "Minchin gaff," etc., has gathered into a good-sized volume (Macmillan), with ample revision, rearrangement, and additions, the substance of a series of articles on "Sea Fishing," contributed originally to the *Yachting and Boating Monthly*. The author's introductory quotation from Ovid,

> Casus ubique valet; semper tibi pendeat hamus
> Quo minime credas gurgite, piscis erit,

gives warning at the start that the reader has to do with a man of more than one interest. The book covers a wide range of sporting fish, wider than many would admit to the honor of that classification, with practical suggestions on bait, tackle, handling, etc., and is illustrated by drawings made for the purpose by the author's daughter.

More stirring to the sportsman's blood, however, is the "Book of the Tarpon" (Outing Publishing Company), by the veteran tarpon devotee, A. W. Dimock. Mr. Dimock had his first round with a tarpon on rod and reel thirty years ago, prior to any recognition of it as a possible game fish. He has been after tarpon ever since, and will not stop, he says, until it can no longer be said of him: "His eye was not dimmed, nor his natural force abated." Much of the fishing recounted in this volume was done with the camera at hand in an auxiliary boat, and, as tarpon leaping can very easily be stimulated by an expert with the rod, the result is a series of photographs of extraordinary interest. Of course, the language of the camera needs careful interpretation, with occasional checking, just as the language of the enthusiast who holds the rod, but for the fireside angler who must catch his tarpon from the printed page, Mr. Dimock's racy word pictures and photographs will bring the waters of Florida as close as is humanly possible.

In these days of easy paradox and complicated irony, the old *difficile est satiram non scribere* has acquired a new meaning. Almost any British essayist drops naturally into the rôle of social regenerator, and finds himself a satirist ere he is aware of it. Occasionally, as in the case of William Stebbing's "Truths or Truisms" (Frowde), the newcomer, alas! is no longer young, and the shafts of age are notoriously apt to fall wide of the mark. Mr. Stebbing was a Saturday Reviewer thirty or forty years ago, and thus he learned in a good school to aim at human folly and frailty. "The Marriage Lottery," "Insincerities," "Temper," "Eccentrics," "How to Quarrel" are some of his targets, but he comes nearer hitting the bull's eye where the object is far off and indistinct. Some of these brief essays may be worth quoting, but few sentences are quotable, and perhaps not one sticks. Whether undisguised moral precepts, or intended for simple humor, satirical cynicism, or pure irony, Mr. Stebbing's musings, though the outcome of culture and reflection, do not seem sufficiently spontaneous and graceful. The shades of Lamb and La Rochefoucauld may still rest in peace, and the laurels of Anatole France are as green as before.

The friends of the late Raymond Patterson who have been responsible for publishing his occasional articles on the negro question under the title of "The Negro and his Needs" (Fleming H. Revell Co.), with a preface by President Taft, have not done him a great service. Mr. Taft is quick to disclaim any concurrence with the conclusions which Mr. Patterson drew, and well might anybody, for among the suggestions made by Mr. Patterson are the following: "Lynch no negro for anything except crimes against women, and then be sure you have the right negro"; "Chain up all anarchistic negro editors north of that [Mason and Dixon] line and put in asylums Southern statesmen who oppose the education of the negro." Surely a book which offers this as sound advice towards settling the most difficult problem facing the American Government need hardly be taken seriously. Nor is any other treatment called for by the body of the matter itself. Mr. Patterson made large drafts upon the knowledge and wisdom of Dr. Du Bois, Booker Washington, W. H. H. Hart, and other prominent colored leaders and quoted many white students as well. But every chapter proves that he had only a superficial knowledge of the momentous problem about which he essayed to write.

Three new volumes have been added recently to the reports of the Historical Manuscripts Commission of Great Britain. The first constitutes the fifth report on the manuscripts of the Earl of Denbigh, the

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second the long-delayed report on the manuscripts of Lord Middleton, and the third a brief report on certain sections of the Pepys manuscripts at Magdalene College, Cambridge. The Denbigh manuscripts, preserved at Newnham Paddox, Warwickshire, had already been the subject of four short notices in earlier reports, but the present calendar reviews again the entire collection and presents a more thorough and complete analysis of the papers. In time the documents range from 1537 to 1787, and the largest part of them contain the correspondence of Lord Feilding, who afterward became the first earl, during his embassies to Venice and Turin, 1634-1639, and the letters of Isabella de Yonge, wife of the fifth earl, 1735-1753. The Feilding papers throw no little light upon the foreign diplomacy of the reign of Charles I, while the letters of the countess have much to do with the character and career of Bolingbroke, after his departure for France in 1735. Two letters, dated 1691, concern an episode hitherto unknown in the career of Sir Edmund Andros, when the latter sought to obtain through the aid of Princess Anne a post as special emissary to France for purposes of espionage. The plan involved too much risk, and was rejected and Andros was consoled with an appointment elsewhere. The majority of the Pepys papers belonged originally to John Evelyn, who loaned them to Pepys in 1681. Evelyn never asked for them in return, and they were bequeathed with other Pepys manuscripts to Magdalene College, where they now are. Many of the papers relate to the reign of Elizabeth; others, the Stuart and Jersey papers, to the period of the civil war. The Elizabethan letters concern Leicester, Amy Robsart, Mary Queen of Scots, and the diplomatic relations of England, France, and Holland, and among them are a few references to the second Florida expedition of 1565. The later papers are exceedingly valuable for the history of the civil war, and incidentally give us several letters from Sir John Berkeley and the heads of a letter from Charles I to the secretary of Virginia. Among the few papers of later date in this report are a remarkable paper on New England, probably of date 1663-1664, and a letter from Edward Byllynge, of 1673-1674.

Very noteworthy is the report by W. H. Stevenson, the learned editor of Asser, upon the manuscripts of Lord Middleton. The collection is one offering many difficulties, consisting as it does of an enormous number of mediæval and later deeds, charters, court rolls, manorial accounts, and the like relating to thirty counties in England. The list of manorial records alone, here entered, occupies thirty-nine pages, and does not include similar documents of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. In addition to the legal and official documents there are a great many letters, among which is one affording a glimpse of Mary Queen of Scots during her imprisonment at Sheffield House, and giving a lively account of the domestic jars between the Earl of Shrewsbury, her jailor, and his wife, the famous "Bess of Hardwick," who built Hardwick Hall. There are also groups of papers relating to settlement in the West Indies, and to the Newfoundland venture of 1611-1631. Oddly enough, among these letters is one from Panhekoe, sachem of the Mohegan Indians in Connecticut, to Nicholas Hallam of that colony, touching an early phase of the long drawn out quarrel between that tribe and the colony of Connecticut. Among the rare documents noted in this report is part of an eighth-century uncial copy of the Latin vulgate, which Mr. Stevenson thinks may represent one of the three oldest manuscript books known to have been written in England. There are also fragments of a Worcestershire Chartulary of 1000 A. D., the oldest chartulary of which we have any trace. As fragments of both these precious manuscripts are in the British Museum, it is clear that many unique and rare documents were sold as waste paper at the dissolution of the monasteries. Almost equally interesting are the household accounts of the sixteenth century, which show the minute care with which household expenses were recorded, and, consequently, throw numerous side-lights upon the domestic life of the time. These records also yield a rich crop of obsolete terms, some of which are not recorded in the New English Dictionary. A list of these words is given in the index under "Glossary," occupying four columns. This volume, upon which Mr. Stevenson has been engaged for many years, has a wide interest for the modern, as well as the mediæval student, and bears to an unusual degree the marks of rare learning and patience in the realm of historical scholarship.

To the monographs on minor English authors of the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries which have been appearing of recent years in the Wiener Beiträge zur Englischen Philologie (Vienna: W. Braumüller), there is now added one on Joanna Baillie, or rather her "Plays on the Passions," by Dr. A. Badstuber (No. 34 of the series). After a few pages of biography the writer analyzes and discusses Miss Baillie's theories concerning the drama which she set forth in the "Introductory Discourse" to the first volume of her plays (1798), and which she endeavored to exemplify by the plays themselves. He next gives full outlines of the plots of these plays and comments on their relations to the theories of the authoress. Finally we have a general critical estimate of the "Plays on the Passions" and their place in English literature. Dr. Badstuber's dissertation cannot be said to have added anything notable to our knowledge of Joanna Baillie, but it is readable, and he has only to a slight extent fallen into the error which is common to works of this kind—that is, of overestimating the importance of his subject. Moreover, the full analyses of the plays which he gives will be useful for reference. On the other hand, his suggestion that in her methods of characterization Miss Baillie was influenced by earlier books of "characters" (compare, for instance, Theophrastus and La Bruyère) will hardly find acceptance. The similarity was an inevitable consequence of her dramatic theory, in accordance with which all the interest of a play was concentrated on one character conceived as the type of some single passion. No question concerning Joanna Baillie, however, has much importance, for her influence on the English drama was virtually *nil* and her works can scarcely be reckoned among the books that are merely half forgotten. Indeed, an eloquent passage in Scott's "Marmion" has done more to preserve her memory than all that she herself wrote.

"European Years, the Letters of an Idle Man" (Houghton Mifflin) reveals an exiled Bostonian of the old stock seeking climate in many lands, and meanwhile reading and moralizing at large. The idle man has an uncommonly well-stored mind and with frankly displayed prejudices a sufficient flexibility before the hazards of travel. He can be vivid when he chooses, and his comments on public affairs are often shrewd and pungent. Whoever has followed the course of things European for the last thirty years or so will find this book an agreeable remembrancer. That the letters have a fine crustiness is not to be denied, but we quite fail to find in them the exceptional epistolary merits promised by the editor, Prof. George E. Woodberry. They seem to us, even when most witty, a little overweighted with the complacency of a professional culture. Witness an extract: "I wonder somebody does not start the philosophy of Epicurus in Boston: it would ameliorate the asperity of its theological attrition."

Earnest readers will welcome A. Cabaton's "Java, Sumatra, and the Other Islands of the Dutch East Indies" (Scribner), with preface by Bernard Miall, as one which has succeeded in blending authoritative statement of fact with an attractive style. The Dutch East Indies possess an interest for the student of history and comparative politics which is out of proportion to their political status. In the first place, they constitute the oldest and most valuable colony of Holland, comprise an area approximately fifty-eight times the area of Holland, and contain a population nearly seven times as large as Holland's. And, in the second place, ever since the time of Pope Alexander's famous decree concerning the demarcation line, the islands of the East Indies have been sought after by the commercial nations of the earth. There is an added interest in this fact for the student of politics, inasmuch as the Dutch, English, Americans, and others are attempting to solve in different ways similar problems in their respective island possessions. The archipelago forms, as it were, a political laboratory wherein certain of the Powers are now working out the problems of colonial administration with varying degrees of success. The author devotes one of the early chapters to a description of the physical geography of the region, evidently believing, and rightly so, that one of the fundamental factors influencing human life conditions is the physical environment. Then follow chapters dealing with such topics as the natives of Java, the Oriental foreign element, Europeans in Java, the administration of Java, agriculture and industry, Sumatra and Borneo, Celebes and its dependencies. Not the least interesting part of the volume is the short final chapter, which might better be called a concluding note. The author here refers to the probable political future of the Dutch Indies. Although he admits that they, like all Asiatic colonies, are tending toward autonomy, he quickly adds that for the present, at least, they are incapable of realizing that goal unaided. "To pretend that a European domination," says the author, "even with its regrettable blunders and failures of

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justice, is not for the good of such peoples (the Malays), is to deny the past and to deny the petitions of the victims in favor of the complaint of the privileged despoiled of their privileges." In short, his logical conclusion, whether assented to by the reader or not, is that no other nation, European or Asiatic, could do more than Holland has done for the Indies, and that they can attain independence only in the remote future, under the protection of the Dutch flag.

In "British and German East Africa" (Longmans), Dr. H. Brode, for many years German consul at Zanzibar, has for his main object to show the economic and commercial relations of the two Colonial possessions. But incidentally he gives much information in regard to the civilizing work going on in them, and the development of their rich natural resources. He attributes the greater advance made by his countrymen (their total trade in 1909 amounted to nearly twelve million dollars, twice as large as that of the English) to the fact that the colonial interest in Germany is concentrated on East Africa as the "jewel" colony, "whilst in the huge British Colonial Empire the East African Protectorates were looked upon as stepchildren." However, he frankly acknowledges that much of this greater growth is due to England's aid, especially through the building of the Uganda Railway and the establishment of a steamship line on Lake Victoria. As regards the future, he holds it to be certain that the economic relations will become closer; "and so, in peaceful competition, Germany and England will work together for the expansion of civilization in East Africa." Among the nine illustrations is one of an interesting slave caravan of former days.

In "The Egyptian Elements in the Legend of the Body and Soul" (Bryn Mawr College Monographs, Vol. VIII) Miss Louise Dudley publishes the results of a long and minute study in this country and abroad. As one of the most dramatic literary products of the Middle Ages, the story of this debate between a man's soul and body over the responsibility of each for his pitiful plight just at the point of death, has engaged more than the usual attention of scholars. But Miss Dudley has outdone them all by carrying its origin back to the superstitions of ancient Egypt. There she found in Coptic documents representing Christianized survivals of the older time the main elements contained in the versions of the Middle Ages. The following references in two Latin homilies on the subject gave her the clue: "Quoddam exemplum horribile, quod quidam homo sanctus in excessu mentis positus vidit, et audivit de quadam anima de Ægypto exeunte, et contra corpus suum contendente"; and "Audiamus quid Macaris qui curam gerebat animarum in Alexandria, quibusdam verba faciens, se a quodam fratre monacho in excessu mentis posito audisse peribetur." Considering the well-known vagueness and downright lies of mediæval writers with reference to their sources, Miss Dudley may be commended for her courage in taking these statements at their face value. Her arguments are altogether too complicated to be summarized here, but her general conclusion is this: In ancient Egypt the dramatic separation of the soul and body at death was a favorite theme, which was later greatly enlarged upon by the Christians of that country. At first there was no question of a good soul and a bad body, or vice versa, or of reproaches brought at that time; the mere act of separating was the real foundation of the story. No extant Coptic documents can be called direct sources of the Western versions, but, taken together, they prove conclusively that Egypt started the legend on its popular round.

Arnold Tanzer, who died recently at his home in New York, was born in Prague in 1841. Devoted to mercantile pursuits all his life, he found leisure for the cultivation of scholarly tastes and the acquirement of extensive knowledge, to which the columns of the *Nation* bore frequent testimony. His articles on contemporary politics, more particularly his reviews of books dealing with German and French history and biography, were always welcomed by the editor, the late Mr. Garrison, his friend, and, for many years, his neighbor in Orange. Mr. Tanzer was one of the few American possessors of Ersch and Gruber's "Allgemeine Enzyklopädie der Wissenschaften und Künste," that colossal encyclopædic collection, of which nearly 200 volumes have appeared up to date. The critical notices of some of the successive volumes of this unique work were not the least notable of his contributions to the *Nation*.

The Right Rev. Rowland Ellis, whose death is reported at the age of seventy, was the author of several works, among them "Some Aspects of Woman's Life," "The Church in the Wilderness," "The Christian Faith," "Sin and Its Remedy," and "Christ and the Gospels."

The death is announced of the Rev. Peter Anton of Kilsyth, Scotland, whose writings include "Masters in History," "England's Essayists," "The Flywheel," "Staying Power," and "History of Kilsyth."

Edmond Saglio, who died recently in Paris at the age of eighty-three, wrote in collaboration with C. Daremberg, a notable "Dictionnaire des Antiquités grecques et romaines"; for several years he was a conservator at the Louvre and later was director of the Cluny Museum.

From Berlin comes the report of the death of Friedrich Dernburg, the writer, at the age of seventy-eight. He wrote "Spanische Bilder," "Russische Leute," and other works, and edited the *feuilleton* of the *Berliner Tageblatt*.

Science

Books on gardening are constantly published, but they are for the most part concerned with the problem how to make seeds grow up into beautiful flowers or succulent vegetables. There is another aspect of gardening—the laying out of the home grounds so that they may all be harmoniously disposed in relation to the house—which has been comparatively ignored, with the result that every village and suburban street presents a number of misconceptions in gardening which might have been easily avoided. Grace Tabor, the well-known landscape architect, gives much helpful information on this subject in "The Landscape Gardening Book" (John C. Winston Company). She believes that Americans should have American gardens instead of attempting to build Elizabethan or Italian gardens, for which the castles and moats and other necessary surroundings are wanting. Having thus stated her point of view, she gives hints as to how to utilize natural features in garden making; how to screen, reveal, and emphasize objects and views; how to treat boundary lines, etc. She does not look on roads as necessary evils, but shows how they can be made the most of. The uses of trees are fully discussed, and the names given of the kinds best suited for various soils, rich or poor. There are chapters on vegetable gardens, on winter in the garden, on buildings, and so on, all of them copiously illustrated.

Another book on the same subject is "Garden Planning," by W. S. Rogers (Doubleday, Page & Co.). Mr. Rogers is an Englishman writing from an English point of view, but the only serious alterations deemed necessary for an American reprint of the book were in the lists of trees and plants adapted to this or that situation. He strongly urges the importance of eliminating symmetry from the general garden picture, as precluding a picturesque effect. He cautions against building on made ground; shows what is best to be done on the north and the south sides of a house, and has much to say regarding the comparative value of grass walks and other kinds of paths. Bridges, hedges, and summer houses are not overlooked. The appendix contains lists of flowers for special purposes, and many other things. While the subject of this book is identical with Miss Tabor's, there is much additional matter. Home-makers may profitably consult them both, thus avoiding mistakes and saving money by planning in advance.

The third of the Rural Manuals is Prof. L. H. Bailey's "Farm and Garden Rule-Book" (Macmillan). Like his "Manual of Gardening," the first of the series, it is the expansion of an earlier volume, in this case "The Horticulturist's Rule-Book," the continued demand for which, coupled with the growth of modern knowledge, made revision and completion necessary. The result, intended for the student farmer, is a handy reference manual of very wide scope. It is safe to say that within similar space there is nowhere contained so much reliable information for the farmer and gardener. This is in the form of rules, tables, formulæ, records, and so forth, and covers all the important departments of farm activity. The facts are gathered from many different sources, and preserve much valuable material which would otherwise be buried in experiment station reports. The book is thoroughly indexed, well printed, and attractively bound.

Susan M. Hallowell, emeritus professor of botany in Wellesley College, died in Wellesley on Friday evening, December 15. Miss Hallowell was born in Bangor, Me., in 1835. She became a teacher of various subjects in the public high school, but a strong bent towards science led her to give herself all the opportunities in the subject which the time afforded. She studied with Agassiz at Panikese Island. Before the opening of Wellesley College, Miss Hallowell was appointed professor of natural science, but she insisted that her work should be confined to one branch—that of botany.

Dr. Joseph Edward Janvrin, one of the founders of the International Congress of

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Gynæcology and Obstetrics, is dead at the age of seventy-two. He was born in Exeter, N. H., in 1839, was educated at Phillips Exeter Academy, and received his medical training at the College of Physicians and Surgeons. He acted as assistant surgeon of the Fifteenth New Hampshire Volunteers in the Civil War, and came to New York in 1872 to be an assistant surgeon in the Woman's Hospital of the State of New York, a position he held until 1882. A year later he became the gynæcologist of the New York Skin and Cancer Hospital, and continued in that capacity until his death. He was president of the American Gynæcology Society, 1902-1903; president of the New York Obstetric Society, 1890-1891, and president of the New York County Medical Association in 1896 and 1897.

Prof. Odilon-Marc Lannelongue, the celebrated surgeon, died in Paris on Friday of last week. He was born in 1840, at Castera-Verduzan, in the Department of the Gers, and had devoted himself principally to surgery; he was made a professor in the Faculty of Medicine in 1884. As a practical and theoretical sugeon he acquired great fame, and some of his books on surgery are accepted as standard works. He was a member of the Academy of Sciences, and also of the Academy of Medicine, a Senator from the Department of the Gers, and was a Commander of the Legion of Honor.

Drama

A FAILURE AND ITS LESSON.

The temporary, if not final, abandonment of their enterprise by the Founders of the New Theatre is a discouraging incident for those who believed that its inception meant the dawn of a brighter day for the theatre; but it may be productive of good in the long run, if the lesson which it inculcates be duly taken to heart. That lesson, to be sure, is an old one, but the Founders disregarded it, and it is just as well, perhaps, that they and others of like mind should be compelled to study it over again from the beginning. The lesson briefly is that the first essential of a first-class theatre is a first-class performance, and that the one indispensable requisite to a first-class performance is a first-rate company.

There is an intimation in the official statement of the Founders that they may, at some indefinite time in the future, be inclined to try again, when conditions shall offer a clear field and satisfactory arrangements for management have been made. The clear field has always lain open before them, and lies there still. It is in the "satisfactory managerial arrangements" that the crux of the problem is to be found. When the New Theatre scheme was first mooted, certain prevailing conditions upon the stage had long been notorious. One of them was that the whole English-speaking theatre—not the American only—could not supply, from both sexes, half a dozen performers of the first class; another was that a steady deterioration in the quality of acting had been going on for a generation, as was proved by the marked superiority of the few surviving veterans over their younger successors, and the third was that, under the new system of syndicate management, nothing resembling a school of acting any longer existed. In other words, there were no really good actors to be had, and no apparent means of producing them. This was the situation. Nevertheless, the enthusiastic promoters of the New Theatre, putting too implicit faith in the irresistible magic of the checkbook and despising all obstacles, set to work to build a palatial temple, too large for drama, in which the spoken word was often inaudible, and when the edifice had progressed to a point where modification was virtually impossible, proceeded to collect an expensive but scratch company of widely different training, experience, and speech, for the expressed purpose of presenting the best drama of all kinds, and of establishing an institution akin to the Théâtre Français.

The wonder is not that they failed, but that they did not perceive the reason of their failure until something like half a million dollars had been lost in the experiment. They are to be congratulated very heartily upon the resolution to consider further before they adventure more. And, as has been hinted, they have furnished an object lesson of immense value. They have proved that money cannot do the work of brains, and that a theatre without actors is a futility. Others have shown that money is not even a prime essential to the establishment of such an institution as the Founders dreamed of. But the beginning has to be made from the bottom, with becoming humility, and not from the top. Phelps—one of the most sterling actors and managers that ever lived—showed how to make a stock company when he converted the disreputable and ruined Sadler's Wells Theatre, in one of the shabbiest districts of London, into the great centre of the poetic drama in England. F. R. Benson not only maintains the best Shakespearean company in Great Britain, but a school to which the metropolitan managers are indebted for nearly all their best players. The Chicago Drama Players have demonstrated that it is still possible to assemble an excellent company for all purposes of good modern drama from the capable players banished to the provinces by the manufacturers of modern stars. Not only this, but they proved once more how impossible it is for even capable actors to interpret artificial comedy acceptably without previous instruction. The Irish Players, with not much besides their coöperative zeal to help them, are exhibiting in a remarkable way the capabilities of a stock company and the undeniable feasibility of a true and inexpensive National Theatre.

It is not likely that the appearance of Mr. Ames as a possible rival had anything to do with the withdrawal of the New Theatre project. His opposition is neither direct nor formidable. It is only reasonable and agreeable to suppose that the Founders have realized finally the nature and depth of their error in not thinking about their company until they had built the house to put it in. The task of organizing a real stock company now is more arduous than it would have been three or four years ago, for some persons who might have been valuable assistants are dead. But money can command time and men. It might not be impossible, even now, to find a competent director—cocksure juvenile enthusiasts, of course, are plentiful—who would undertake to form in the course of four or five years a sufficiently sound, if not brilliant, stock company—from which all stars should be rigorously excluded—capable of speaking blank verse, of acting in romance or tragedy, and reproducing artificial comedy with its appropriate sparkle and elegance. Such a company would not cost half a million—for it could easily be made self-supporting while it was acquiring its education—but it would fulfil the original New Theatre programme, and, perhaps, though somewhat late in the day, justify the original expenditure upon its ineffective predecessor.

The presentation of Edward Knoblauch's "Kismet" in the Knickerbocker Theatre on Monday evening was in many respects a disappointment. So far as the beauty, taste, and costliness of the stage decorations were concerned, managerial promises were fairly fulfilled. Exterior scenes were fine in atmosphere, proportion, and color, and the architecture was constructed after good models. The interiors were spacious and brilliant. Only the bazaar scene, which required special tact and knowledge, was a comparative failure. This had brilliancy and bustle—too much bustle—but not life. For the eye there was ample entertainment, for the understanding not much. The story of "Kismet," interpreted in contemporaneous fashion, is only crude melodrama, but played in the Eastern spirit, with some realization of the conditions in Bagdad a thousand years ago, it becomes an Oriental romance of the most dramatic kind in which the power of coincidence—so dear to the fatalistic mind—is deftly used to bring about a series of startling events, including many reversals of fortune, in the course of a single day. The action is varied and incessant. Only illusion is necessary to hold the spectator in the grip of that suspense that makes light of all improbabilities. The part of Hajj, the beggar, who in his "day of days" achieves sudden prosperity, commits several murders, narrowly escapes mutilation, is reduced again to penury, and sees his daughter married to the Caliph whom he has tried to assassinate and who therefore dooms him to ban-

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ishment, is Oriental to the core, and in its infinite variety of emotions might well excite the envy of the ablest actor. It may readily be believed that Oscar Asche created an immense impression in it in London. Here, although played by so good a romantic actor as Otis Skinner, it awakened no more than a languid interest. The performer seemed to feel the repressive influences of a cast unable to adapt itself to unfamiliar conditions. There were but few moments when the play really bore an Oriental, antique, or romantic flavor, in spite of the dreamy splendors of its setting. It was criticised openly as extravagant and dull. The actors, having no sense of illusion, could not, of course, impart it. If the representation should fail, the poor author must bear the blame, though his part of the work is very well done.

Among the novelties marked for production by Herbert Trench during his tenancy of the London Haymarket was an adaptation by Rudolf Besier of H. G. Wells's novel, "Kipps." For one reason or another the piece was never done, and with Frederick Harrison's advent at the Haymarket the rights in it were allowed to lapse. "Kipps" was promptly procured by Carl Leyel, Oscar Asche's general manager at the Garrick. In due course Mr. Leyel hopes to present it at a West End theatre.

Professor Reinhardt has arrived in London to superintend preparations for his production of "Œdipus Rex," which Martin Harvey presents at Covent Garden on January 15. The heavy structural alterations will at once be begun; the raising of the stalls floor, necessitated by the carrying of the steps to the King's palace into the front portion of the auditorium, is one of the important changes to be effected in the interior of the house. As it is Professor Reinhardt's intention to light the play entirely from the front, a special installation of an electric plant is to be made at the back of the gallery from which point the various remarkable effects will be obtained.

Gordon Craig has gone to Moscow to be present at the final rehearsals of "Hamlet," which is to be given in accordance with his theories. Speaking of the Prince, he said:

> I take an entirely commonsense view of the man and his motives. He simply succeeded in performing in two months a task that has been tried in every court in Europe for centuries. He set out to cleanse social and official life of its moral grime and its degeneracy. He set about his task with direct purpose, and with the full enthusiasm of a young, virile, and cruelly wronged man. His ideas were logical, and he reasoned and thought out every movement and act during that brief time of storm and stress that ended in tragedy. That is my idea of Hamlet.

If that really is Mr. Craig's notion of Hamlet, there does not seem to be much reason why he should be encouraged to promulgate it. What fatality is it that condemns so many enthusiastic stage reformers to be freakish?

The Paris correspondent of a London paper furnishes the following synopsis of "La Flambée," by M. Kistemaeker, which has just been produced at the Porte St. Martin in Paris: A French lieutenant-colonel, who has run himself deep into debt in order to provide a life of luxury for his high-spirited wife, falls into the hands of an international spy, who has bought up his bills and has him at his mercy. The officer and the spy are staying at the same country house, and when at a midnight interview the spy proposes to free the officer from all his financial embarrassments if he will betray the plans of the neighboring fort, the indignant soldier strangles him. The officer's wife, who had been estranged from her husband by his domineering spirit, is stirred to passionate devotion by his deed, and resumes the old conjugal relations in order to provide him with an alibi. At the same time she rejects the advances of a brilliant and fascinating ex-minister whom she had long encouraged. The ex-minister is impressed by the patriotism of the confession which the officer makes to him, and so manages the official inquiry as to bring out the real character of the murdered spy, whose death he characterizes as an "execution." There is a reconciliation of a kind dear to the French stage morals, and the curtain falls on a scene in which patriotic enthusiasm is mingled with conjugal and other affection.

Rose Eytinge, whose death occurred last week, was, in her day, a very beautiful woman and a most capable actress. She had at her command pathos, passion, hauteur, and, in a measure, humor. Her style was bold, picturesque, and refined, and her presence exercised a great power of fascination. In her early prime, when she was leading lady at Wallack's, her performance of Nancy Sykes to the Bill of G. L. Davenport, was generally regarded as a masterpiece of cruel, pitiful naturalism, and she excelled also in romantic characters. It was in the Union Square Theatre Company, especially in such plays as "Led Astray" and "Rose Michel," that she was seen at her best and reached the height of her reputation. She was born in Philadelphia in 1835, and was educated there and in Brooklyn. She became a member of Edwin Booth's company, and in 1880 went to London and appeared with Barry Sullivan, Stuart Robson, and other leading actors. For several years following she taught stage work. She reappeared as an actress in "The Helmet of Navarre," "Frocks and Frills," and, more recently, in support of Mrs. Fiske in "Mary of Magdala" and "The Bishop's Carriage."

Music

LISZT'S DANTE SYMPHONY.

The climax of the Liszt Centenary festivities was the last Philharmonic concert. Josef Stransky conducted the symphonic poem, "Die Ideale," and the "Dante" symphony, while Arthur Friedheim, a genuine pupil of Liszt, played the A major concerto in a manner which his master himself could hardly have surpassed. The "Ideale" is, from a formal point of view, one of the most finished of Liszt's symphonic poems, but in the matter of inspiration or abundance of ideas it is inferior to his "Tasso," "Les Préludes," "Orphée," "Mazeppa" "Festklänge," "Hungaria," and "The Battle of the Huns." The "Dante" symphony, on the other hand, is generally regarded as marking, with the "Faust" symphony and "Tasso," the climax of his creative activity. The first sketches for it were made as early as 1847; it was finished in 1855, and first performed in 1857 at Dresden.

Its first American production was in 1870, in New York, where there was an early Liszt cult fostered by Bergmann, the conductor of the Philharmonic Society. This society made Liszt an honorary member in 1873, a distinction which gave him much pleasure. In his reply he said: "This diploma is rendered especially valuable to me by the words expressive of the motive which prompted it, namely: 'By his many compositions has extended the boundaries of his art,' etc., and their consonance with the acts of the Philharmonic Society in performing many of my works." Subsequently, Theodore Thomas became an ardent missionary for his works, and to him Liszt also wrote to express his gratitude "for the unusual care which you have given to the performance of my works. They need—even more than other, better compositions, the sympathetic and intelligent care of the conductor, on account of the many changes of tempo and tone color."

In Josef Stransky, the Philharmonic now has an ideal Liszt conductor—one who knows the significance of these many changes in tempo and color. His accession, just at the time when Joseph Pulitzer left the Philharmonic $500,000 on the condition that a prominent place should be given in the programmes to the works of his three favorite composers—Beethoven, Wagner, and Liszt—makes it certain that none of Liszt's masterworks will again be neglected as long as was the "Dante" symphony, which had not been heard here for twenty-eight years. Its performance showed that time has had no effect on this piece, as might be inferred from the fact that Dvorák, Dukas, and Thuille have found inspiration in its score, while Wagner borrowed themes for his "Parsifal" from the Magnificat which forms its third part. In this part a chorus of women's voices is introduced with beautiful effect. But the most original and imposing part is the first, in which Liszt depicts the infernal regions with a realistic force that even Berlioz never equalled. In all music, there is nothing more awe-inspiring than the tones in which the brasses hurl out the "All hope abandon, ye who enter here," or than the *allegro frenetico*, in which the agonized shrieking souls are beaten about in the darkness by the musical whirlwind.

"The Inquisitive Women," Wolf-Ferrari's opera, is to have its first American performance at the Metropolitan Opera House next Wednesday. It is based on a comedy by Goldoni. The reason the women are inquisitive is that the men spend their time at a clubhouse on the door of which is a sign reading, "Women are excluded."

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The women are sure that horrible orgies are carried on and they try in diverse ways to get keys or force their way in. The opera will be conducted by Toscanini, and the cast includes Geraldine Farrar, Bella Alten, Rita Fornia, Mme. Maubourg, Jadlowker, Scotti, and De Segurola. Wolf-Ferrari is a young composer of thirty-five, whose operas have won success in Germany as well as in Italy. He is director of the Marcello Conservatory in Venice.

A notable feature of Joseph Stransky's programme for the New York Philharmonic concerts this Thursday evening and Friday afternoon will be the first performance in America of Weingartner's latest Symphony, the No. 3, in E major, op. 49. His first Symphony has been heard in this country in Boston only. The second was produced by the Philharmonic Society on December 5-6, 1902. In 1904, when Weingartner was in New York, as one of the "guest conductors" of the Society, he directed performances of two of his symphonic poems. The Symphony now to be performed, the Third, was played for the first time late last year in Vienna. It has since been performed by a number of European symphony orchestras. The work is Viennese in spirit, use being made of a waltz theme in the finale, with motives from "Die Fledermaus."

The full orchestral scores of Liszt's twelve symphonic poems have been published by Ernst Eulenburg, Leipzig, in the miniature editions which are coming so much into favor because they are so handy and cost so little—only thirty marks for the twelve, any one of which used to cost about that sum. Among other full scores at nine to eleven marks each, are Bach's St. Matthew's Passion, Brahms's four symphonies and his German Requiem, Schumann's four symphonies, Mendelssohn's two, Handel's "Messiah," Berlioz's best works, Beethoven's nine symphonies (30 marks for three volumes), and two volumes, including violin concertos by Bach, Beethoven, Mendelssohn, Mozart, Spohr, Brahms, Bruch, and Tchaikovsky. The chamber music scores of the great masters, from Bach to Dvorák, can also now be obtained in this miniature edition.

Art

THE WINTER ACADEMY.

Despite the new rule of accepting no more than two works by any painter, the National Academy hangs this winter less than two-thirds of the works accepted. The residue of sixty-eight pieces of sculpture and three hundred and thirty-four paintings forms a show by no means uninteresting in itself, but imperfectly representative. Such will be the case with all Academy exhibitions until proper galleries are provided.

Dallin's An Appeal to the Great Spirit, a praying Indian on horseback, in bronze, occupies the approach to the Fine Arts Building. The lithe handsomeness of the sculpture is much diminished by the oddness of such an apparition apparently leaving the portal. Is he thanking the Great Spirit that the visit is over? Or does he merely emphasize the fact that there is no room inside for monumental art? Either explanation will perhaps explain his rather startling presence in Fifty-seventh Street. Inside, sculpture holds its usual secondary place, though there still is too much for the decorative effect of the galleries. Among the more attractive contributions are those of French, Janet Scudder, Robert Aitken, Bessie Potter Vonnoh, Fraser, Edith Woodman Burroughs, and Abastenia St. Leger Eberle. With these may be mentioned the exhibit of finely carved medals by Victor D. Brenner.

As for the pictures, they are uncommonly well hung. In fact, the material is more varied than usual, both in size and theme. The normal supply of merely respectable portraiture has mercifully shrunk; small landscapes do not so tediously prevail; figure subjects are more than commonly in evidence, and the presence of a few large canvases gives tone and focus to each gallery. One comes away with the novel sensation less of a duty done than of a pleasure experienced. And this is due not so much to the presence of a few memorable works as to the sense of a general cheery competence which neither calls for cavil nor yet exacts any very intense appreciation. With some visitors the homelikeness of re-seeing several good pictures already viewed at Pittsburgh or Philadelphia counts for something. Others may resent such a reminder of the secondary position of New York as exhibitor of current art.

There can be little new to say of the approved excellence of such painters as Ochtman, Snell, Rehn, Woodbury, Frieseke, Cecelia Beaux (unfavorably represented this year), Volk, Chase, Sergeant Kendall, Groll, Van Laer, Eaton. Again, Sargent's splendid portrait of the "Hoosier Poet" cannot be seen too often, but suggests no new comment. Unquestionably the most striking contributions are the Russian Fechin's Carrying Off a Peasant Bride, Blashfield's big allegorical canvas called Life, and Kenyon Cox's A Vision of Moonrise.

Fechin has plenty of the disorderly power befitting his race. His peasant rout is painted with gusto, but there is no unity beyond that of subject matter. Amid discreet surroundings such robustness gains factitious value, as Col. Roosevelt might seem more than usually colossal at a session of a peace society. In the spectral solemnity of the allegory Life it is hard to recognize the suavity of Blashfield. Nor is the allegory itself quite clear, though apparently a mother's death in child-birth is the basis of the symbolism. The nude figure of a man is doubled upon itself in the portico of a vast temple. Two ominous female figures stand before a bronze door where a black-robed, mourning woman enters slowly. A shaft of light from her widens towards the cowering man. In it is a nude infant appealing to the disregardful sitter at the threshold. Behind the group, the base of a massive Doric column looms phosphorescently. It is an impressive piece, recalling on the one hand Watts, on the other Franz Stuck in his better vein. It would require more acquaintance than is possible in a first visit justly to appreciate this remarkable picture. Kenyon Cox's A Vision of Moonrise seems a masterpiece *manqué*. The draughtsmanship is superb. One would love to cut out the figure of the nude shepherd dazzled by the beauty of the winged moon-maiden who hovers before him. The color is sonorous and fine, the landscape beautifully disposed in succinct decorative formulas. Mr. Cox achieves quite new and notable qualities in this canvas. It will become more lovely in color with age. And yet something ails the whole thing. Perhaps the fuller realization of the moon-maiden is out of keeping with the more generalized form of the shepherd. Or there may be the more radical defect that the composition is not a vision at all, but a thing learnedly compiled with no comprehensive visualization at any stage. One is inclined to that view after seeing Cox's masterly portrait of Grant La Farge a few steps away. A definite subject matter seems to make all the difference.

Among the portraits, none, with the exception of Sargent's James Whitcomb Riley, seems its peer. But Speicher's prize portrait of a lady in a fur toque is lovely in tone and admirable in characterization, Alden Weir's second best remains better than most painters best, Blumenschein shows a very able portrait group which, however, sags out of the frame. George Bellows and Ben Ali Haggin contribute portraits of immense exhibitionistic effect, but lacking the self-contained quality of really fine portraiture. It would be an interesting exercise in criticism to discriminate between these two very striking female portraits and their nearest parallels, Manet and early Sargent. The difference possibly is that these old masters did not carry a chip on their shoulders, and yet a chip is a seemly ornament for ambitious youth.

Couse's crouching figure of an Indian Potter well deserved its prize and is the most attractive of the smaller figure compositions. It shows that preciseness and even explicitness of rendering is compatible with atmospheric envelope—a lesson which though obvious enough to those who know old painting needs to be reiterated to-day. Paxton's big Academy, vaguely reminiscent of Ingres's La Source, is as beautifully seen as painted. Among *genre* subjects, Glackens's Children Bathing is remarkable for sense of place. The flimsy ugliness of seaside architecture is most humorously conveyed. There is a de-

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lightful idyllic freshness about a similar subject by Jonas Lie. The social dip is sublimated into a kind of nature worship. Jerome Myers, perhaps the finest eye and sympathy among the painters of child life in New York, seems, as in the last year or so, to be hesitating between decorative and illustrative aims. Walcott, in a vision of romping children, chooses frankly for illustration. A gracefully decorative sort of ideal portraiture is well represented by the contribution of the President of the Academy, and Johansen reveals a very similar bent and accomplishment in the group A Windy Day on the Beach.

Landscape, were it not for the feature of many studies from the Grand Canyon, would seem rather in abeyance. Of these Arizona pictures none is more distinguished than Ben Foster's beautifully composed and reticent canvas Laguna Canyon. It represents merely a rise of sunsteeped sand and sage bush, but it conveys the peculiar dignity of the desert and the austerely beautiful quality of wind-sculptured desert forms. Gardner Symons's Snowclad Fields in Morning Light is a quite astonishing bit of insistent realism. You could walk in it, if that be any advantage, but it is lacking in design, a quality in which this able young painter usually is strong. Two little landscapes by George M. Bruestle hang over a door. In that place and altitude many good things have hung before. A shrewd visitor will look there first on entering the gallery. Bruestle affects a sonorous contrast between a russet earth and a blue-green sky. His pictures have, besides this depth of color, extraordinary mass and scale. There may be some danger of the scheme sinking to a trick, but at the moment none of the younger landscape painters gives more substantial promise. Harold Camp, whose Morning Star this year is of ambiguous effect, is another youngster who will bear watching. He achieves fine color and a real decorative simplicity. A similar tendency is shown in the landscapes of W. D. Paddock in which elimination is carried almost too far. They have charming passages of color.

So one might go on quite endlessly. Paul Dougherty's A Freshening Gale is perhaps the best of the marines. Hays's study of jockeys is as vivid as a Degas. Jonas Lie's Brooklyn Bridge in Winter is fine in pattern and big in feeling. Louis Cohen's view of Toledo from the river has an old-fashioned well-bred charm quite rare in painting to-day. It would be rash to assert the presence of a single deathless masterpiece in the Academy this winter, though it is hard to imagine a time when Sargent's Riley will cease to be interesting, but there are many pictures one is glad to have seen. Everything about the show testifies to a wholesome experimentalism by no means confined to the younger men.

The Carnegie Prize was awarded to Edwin H. Blashfield, the Thomas R. Proctor Prize for the best portrait, to Eugene E. Speicher, The Isidor Medal for the best figure composition, to E. Irving Couse, the Helen Foster Barnett Prize for sculpture, to Mahonri Young.

F. J. M., JR.

The gold medal for painting at the London Royal Academy was won by Miss Margaret L. Williams; a woman also won this medal two years ago.

William Griggs, who is well known for his studies to perfect the art of facsimile reproduction, is dead in London, at the age of seventy-nine. His "Specimens of Illuminated MSS. at the British Museum" is a masterly work.

Finance

AT THE END OF THE YEAR.

Not often does the financial community as a whole approach the end of an old year and the beginning of a new one in a more sane and intelligent frame of mind. It is true, we have lately been aroused with somewhat extravagant talk of "the biggest boom in the steel trade's history for 1912"—talk that bore a faint suggestion of 1909. But the test of such venturesome predictions is not in their utterance, but in their reception, and the reception of Wall Street's version of Mr. Frick's prediction has been marked by eminent common sense. The Stock Exchange, though it cheered up, did not get excited. Pittsburgh shook its head, predicted a gradual revival, and professed its willingness to take things as they should come. The organs of the steel trade had some smiling allusions to Wall Street's habit of coloring prediction, and advised the steel-making interests to go slow. And finally, the steel-making chiefs themselves, after conferring upon the situation, decided to do no arbitrary marking-up of prices, but to let the movement develop in its natural course.

Now all this is so normal, from the standpoint of an intelligent merchant or investor, that it might seem the merest commonplace. It is the policy pursued by those humdrum capitalists, concerning whom everybody wonders how they made their fortunes, since they never plunged on the Stock Exchange, or promoted Trusts, or offered more or less fraudulent enterprises to investors. But it is chiefly the contrast between this mood of the community and the mood of 1901 or 1906 or 1909 which arrests attention. Whatever the explanation, it is certain that some sort of sea-change has come upon the financial mind.

There is one possible and not uninteresting explanation. A very shrewd observer of the history, both of Wall Street and of American industry, once remarked that the real forward movement after a period of hard times never comes until all the parties chiefly interested have agreed that it will never come at all. This diagnosis, which was based upon study of several famous episodes of financial reaction and recovery, would have ruled out from the realities such episodes as the "Sunshine movement" of 1908, when everybody declared that nothing had happened in the previous October, or the boom of 1909, when every one said that of course good times were back again, because the group of financiers who make good times had said so. The prescribed conditions would not have been met, in the present after-panic period, until the autumn of 1911, when the merchants, the manufacturers, the Stock Exchange, the outside public, and high finance itself, had publicly agreed that prosperity had departed, never to return.

Nor is it by any means illogical that such a state of mind should mean that the hour had struck for the beginning of real recovery. A great financial crisis always means that credit and prices, in financial and industrial markets, had been inflated beyond the point where available capital could bear the strain. If one were to imagine Finance and Industry meeting the problem in a sober and scientific way, one would expect a period of prolonged and persistent liquidation; of prices lowered so as to suit the community's impaired resources, and kept down until supply and demand were brought in touch with one another; of extravagant living and abuse of credit abandoned through force of circumstances, until people who had been deliberately living beyond their means were put in their proper place in the social organism.

There were not wanting prophets to say, in November, 1907, that all this would have to happen before we should be again on the road to genuine prosperity. Some of them went so far as to predict that an era was ended with that panic. They declared that billion-dollar Trust promotions, community-of-interest directorates, use of the trust funds of great corporations to fight on the Stock Exchange for possession of $155,000,000 railways, the buying up of groups of banks at reckless prices, with money borrowed on shares of other banks, and the buying up of groups of railways with money borrowed on bonds of other railways, would presently be deemed as much the incidents of a closed chapter in history as were the "gold corner," the purchase of judges by railway adventurers, and the flight of the Erie directors with the company's books and cash to Jersey City, in the later 'sixties. These prophets usually concluded their forecast by suggesting that economy would have to replace extrava-

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gance among the people as a whole, and that those who would not recognize the new order of things would be relegated to the ranks of seedy promoters, book agents, Wall Street bores, and borrowers from their wives' relations.

Such was the highly unpalatable prediction, and never did prediction seem more grotesque than this did in 1908 and 1909. Yet the community is now beginning dimly to perceive that it was a true prediction. It sees that the conditions thus laid down have, one by one, been realized. They did not come into force at once; they never do; and the process of loosening the desperate grasp of the irreconcilables from the old planks that remained afloat in the troubled sea was painful. But now that so much of the clearing away of wreckage has been done, the end of the process seems to be in sight. That this should happen on the heels of the declaration (six or eight weeks ago) that boom times would never be seen in America again, and that its first result should be that men in charge of great affairs are insisting on moving slowly, prudently, and discreetly, is only repeating the pleasanter part of the history of finance.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ahmad, M. G. The Teachings of Islam. London: Luzac.
Butler, W. A. A Retrospect of Forty Years—1825-1865. Scribner.
Canadian Society of New York. Year Book.
Carter, J. P. In the Cave of Aladdin. James A. Jenkins.
Chapman, J. J. Neptune's Isle, and Other Plays for Children. Moffat, Yard. $1 net.
Chicago, The Book of. Chicago *Evening Post*.
Evans, Donald. Discords. Philadelphia: Brown Bros.
Harman, H. E. Dreams of Yesterday. Columbia, S. C.: State Company.
Holt, W. A Short Life of Henry Fawcett. New York Assn. for the Blind. 25 cents net.
Huizinga, A. v. C. P. Authority. Boston: Sherman, French. $2.25 net.
Hutchinson, W. Handbook of Health. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. $1.25 net.
Kauffman, R. W. The Way of Peace. Moffat, Yard. 50 cents net.
King's Book of Quebec. 2 vols. Ottawa: The Mortimer Co. $25.
Kinney, C. Vagrant Verse. Columbus, O.: F. J. Herr Ptg. Co. $1.
MacCracken, H. N. A Roundel with Ballades. Privately printed.
McGroarty, J. S. California, Its History and Romance. Los Angeles: Grafton Pub. Co. $3.50.
Magruder, J. Her Husband. Boston: Small, Maynard. $1.35 net.
Mears, J. E. The Triumph of American Medicine in the Construction of the Panama Canal. Philadelphia: W. J. Dornan.
Padelford, F. M. The Political and Ecclesiastical Allegory of the First Book of the Faerie Queene. Boston: Ginn. 75 cents.
Pearson, E. L. The Believing Years. Macmillan.
Pearson, E. L. The Librarian at Play. Boston: Small, Maynard. $1 net.
Pendexter, H. The Young Gem-Hunters. Boston: Small, Maynard.
Pervigilium Veneris. Translated into English by E. H. du Bois. Woodstock, Vt.: Elm Tree Press. $5.
Rait, R. S. Scotland. Macmillan. $2 net.
Robinson, W. H. The Golden Legend of India. London: Luzac.
St. Mark: Translated out of the Original Greek. Pocket edition. American Bible Society.
Sills, K. C. M. The First American, and Other Poems. Brunswick, Me. The Author.
Stanton, S. B. Foam Flowers. Moffat, Yard. $1 net.
Wheelock, J. H. The Human Fantasy. Boston: Sherman, French. $1 net.
Winter, William. Shakespeare on the Stage. Moffat, Yard. $3 net.

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